

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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The College in the Post-war World

By W. J. McCONNELL

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Probably no questions claiming the attention of college and university administrators as the session 1943-1944 came to a close occasioned greater concern than those which pertain to the status of the post-war college. This paper sets forth some of the data and conclusions which resulted from a faculty committee study headed by Professor Mitchell P. Wells of the North Texas State College.

The problem which will confront the colleges of the United States in the post-war world will involve two major considerations: (1) vocational rehabilitation and professional training for the returning service personnel, (2) the role which education can play in making the peace just and lasting.

The first aspect of the problem will present peculiar difficulties. The returning service men and women will have had various kinds of specialized training for which they will want to receive college credit. Some of them may not have finished high school or may have graduated from high schools which adopted special army training programs during the war. Others will be the products of Navy V-12 or the Army Specialized Training Program or will have had various courses with the Armed Forces Institute. Too strict an adherence to pre-war entrance and credit technicalities will then prove awkward and perhaps unfair.

In this dilemma the colleges can find aid and comfort in the work of the committee appointed by the American Council on Education to study the problem of college credit for courses studied and experiences had in the armed forces. This committee has recommended that suitable examinations be prepared to test would-be students' knowledge, and the idea has been widely accepted by the various accrediting associations. The War Department has asked the University of Chicago Board of Examinations to prepare these tests, and the Armed Forces Institute administers them. The results are filed with the personal data of each service man and will be available as a sort of transcript for any college registrar who may want the information. The several colleges can decide for themselves the amount of credit they care to give a returning soldier. The Institute makes no effort to translate its data into semester hours. The tests are designed to

cover various subject matters as well as general educational development for high school and college levels. Through such tests colleges may find it possible and desirable to admit students who do not have the technical qualifications at present required for college entrance.

Having solved one way or another the problem of admissions and credit for previous training and experience, the college then must face the problem of what to teach the ex-soldier. The traditional courses of the curriculum as now established may not serve. Some students will have highly specialized training in one aspect of one subject, mathematics or physics for example, and will want to fill in the gaps in their knowledge without repeating subject matter already mastered. Others will want to round out courses in history, language, or other subjects which were given in abbreviated form in the V-12 or other specialized programs. It will hardly be fair or wise to force all these, as well as other students of irregular training, to fit themselves into the rigid grooves of already established curricula.

In this matter of what to teach the returning service man we must likewise consider the maturity of mind and the varied experiences that will make the returning service personnel quite unlike the callow undergraduates to whom we are accustomed. The boys who have faced death in the foxholes are not going to accept shallow thinking, mere pedantry, or plain laziness on the part of their instructors. At least we hope they will not. Many of them will want more and better general education. Earl J. McGrath has discussed the matter in *The Annals of The American Academy of Political and Social Sciences* for January, 1944, and a committee appointed by the American Council on Education has made a report entitled *A Design For General Education*, which is to be published this year. This report should be of considerable help to institutions seeking to adapt curricula to post-war needs. In addition, the Association of American Colleges has appointed a "Committee on the Restatement of the Nature and Aims of Liberal Education," a step which should have been taken long ago perhaps. This committee has pointed out the need for immediate attention to teaching methods, which in the colleges certainly require some attention and revision. The abuse of the lecture system is cited and the over-emphasis on faculty research is deplored, especially where over-specialization and pedantry make the undergraduate courses in the humanities just so much meaningless data and copying of lecture notes. Just what a liberal education is, of course, may be difficult to define in terms suitable to all such able controversialists as Mr. Mark Van Doren, Mr. Hutchins, and others who are at present engaged in threshing out the question; but much is to be hoped from a candid survey of the whole matter.

The reconsideration of the nature and aims of a liberal education brings us to the second aspect of the post-war problem. What role can education

be expected to play in the making of a just and lasting peace? How we face this problem is of more far-reaching consequence than our solution of the national problem of soldier rehabilitation.

International cooperation is obviously the sole hope for lasting peace, which will come only with a sense of world brotherhood and sympathy for all men as engaged in the common experience of life with the same inevitable fate hanging over each of us. This is the fruit of a mature philosophy derived from a knowledge of the long road that man has traveled, the dreams he has dreamed as well as the black despair and the merciless tyrannies of which he has been the victim. A revitalized and truly liberal education can provide this knowledge; an education liberal in the best sense of free and unprejudiced studies in the arts, literatures, philosophies, sciences, and religions by which man has sought through the centuries for an understanding of the mysteries of the human soul and its place in the cosmos. As Louis B. Wright has so well said (in the *South Atlantic Quarterly* for April, 1943), the study of the humanities "is designed to shape character, in the broadest sense, to give men a sense of balance, proportion, perspective and judgment. Humanistic education has for its ultimate goal the cultivation of tolerance, intellectual humility, and wisdom." These are the virtues through which we may hope for lasting peace.

I say hope, advisedly, for the way will doubtless be long and beset with many pitfalls. In the demands to be made upon our colleges after the war, the humanities may have to fight a desperate battle. The impetus given technical and vocational training by the exigencies of our war years will carry over into peacetime. "Practical" education will be increasingly called for, and no educator can or would deny the need for all the highly trained specialists we can develop; but let us never forget that the man who knows naught but his trade or profession will never understand the whole of which he is a part. Hence he will be no fit citizen upon which to build a living democracy, much less a cooperative world. Technical skills can serve the advancement of mankind only if they are firmly rooted in a truly liberal knowledge of man's spirit and man's place in nature. Only thus can our moral and spiritual development hope to keep pace with our technical skill. To increase our power over natural forces and forget our souls is nothing short of suicide. If the law of the jungle is to govern nations, then we had far better remain as powerless to control the energy of the atom as was the cave man. Since man's increasing control over the forces of nature is inevitable, our only hope is to increase commensurately our control over ourselves. This must be the goal of education, or educators are perforce traitors to the noblest function of their calling. The virtues of a liberal education are indeed becoming increasingly necessary for our national sur-

vival. As President Harris of Tulane has remarked in this *QUARTERLY*, "Our greatest mistakes all along our national life have been in acting as though we believed that our emotions, or our naiveté, or our physical substances, or our luck would solve our great problems. Our greatest menace has been and is ignorance. Every crisis that threatens our national life . . . must be met by the minds of men, instead of by their fears, their superstitions, and prejudices."

Let it be ever remembered, though, that neither the United States or any other nation can alone rid the world of the menace of ignorance. Education must be international in scope if civilization is to survive. Mr. Alexander Meikeljohn thinks the only answer is a world state with a World Institute of Education (*Adult Education Journal*, January, 1943). This Institute would select and train teachers who would move from country to country, and students all over the world would study the same things. All our political, economic, and educational matters would be on a global basis. But such a world state as Mr. Meikeljohn visualizes is too fantastic for any practical consideration at the present. It may come eventually, but meanwhile we have a long and rough road to travel.

The most practical and promising of all the efforts looking to international cooperation in education are the activities of the Liaison Committee for International Education. This committee is composed of representatives from some thirty associations interested in education and it is sponsoring an International Education Assembly, the first meeting of which was held at Harpers Ferry, West Virginia, last September 14 to 17, with representatives of twenty-six nations present. The report of this meeting, under the title *Education for International Security*, is a document every educator should read.

Education for world citizenship is a problem of tremendous urgency if the world is to be run by democratic processes. If the people are to rule, they must obviously be well informed. To cultivate the understanding is the duty of those who would direct the destinies of a nation. Voluntary or involuntary ignorance on their part is criminal. As educators we must face this problem successfully. We have no time to "twiddle our thumbs" or "sit in ivory towers" while a war between opposing ideologies tears our world apart, and we dare not permit a world of predatory power groups to emerge from the present conflict. How can we go about the education for world citizenship? The International Education Assembly last September offered fourteen specific recommendations. Among these are plans for eliminating prejudice and intolerance, providing for "the broadest study and

teaching of humanities," studying the great religious teachings and faiths of the world, fostering the spirit of science, and encouraging the study of languages.

If every educator in our nation would deliberately dedicate himself to the furtherance of the movement started last September, the International Education Assembly might well become a potent force in the post-war world. The problem before us is admittedly difficult, staggeringly so, but failure to meet it successfully will mean that the long and bitter struggle for a free and triumphant spirit of man is doomed to failure. The blood, sweat, and tears of twenty centuries will have been to no avail. Then in very truth it will come to pass that

"Humanity must perforce prey on itself
Like monsters of the deep."

College English in War- and Peace-time*

BY HALDEEN BRADDY

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In the years of peace immediately preceding the outbreak of the present world conflict, more than one distinguished scholar (notably the late Professors Brown and Prokosch)¹ widely expressed deep misgivings as to the future of English instruction, viewing with special alarm the lack of interest in linguistics and noting also in many quarters what amounts to incipient invasion of the cultural field of letters by such pseudo-scientific subjects as psychology and sociology. There was indeed real concern lest in these materialistic times English as heretofore conceived might be considered in some ways too impractical for modern purposes and thus almost be obliged to go the way of Greek and Latin largely into a virtual discard. What particularly disturbed many serious scholars was the glaring fact that the colleges were producing neither undergraduates accomplished in the fundamentals nor graduates capable of teaching the essentials to high school pupils. The whole purpose of this criticism was to correct the recent trends in college English instruction by establishing such necessary standards of scholarship as would promote a full understanding of both creative literature and basic language study.

The justice of this criticism naturally won appropriate recognition in many places, but it was destined by the outbreak of hostilities to receive from an unexpected source almost startling confirmation. How seriously improvement in English was needed could not have been more forcefully demonstrated than by the results of military examinations required for high school and college students alike who today are everywhere entering the Army and Navy. Reporting the results of testing hundreds of young men, Major Perry C. Euchner (Aviation Procurement Officer) states: "I find that the greatest deficiency is a limited vocabulary, and a lack of precision and exactitude in the use of words."² In many instances the situation is accurately stated in the words of Robert Quillen, a newspaper reporter who declares that "they can't write legibly or spell."³ The truly crucial fact, according to Major Harold W. Kent (Liaison Officer to the Office of Education), is that "the boys coming into the Army are not as skilled in the use and understanding of our native tongue as they should be."⁴

* It is encouraging to observe the interest now being shown by college teachers of English in the organization and teaching of their subject. For the second time in succession we print an unsolicited article dealing with this important subject.—EDITOR.

¹ See Carleton Brown's Presidential Address "The Attack on the Castle," *PMLA* (1936), LII, 1294-1306; and Eduard Prokosch's Presidential Address "Treason within the Castle," *PMLA* (1937), LIII, 1320-1327.

² See Dorothy Thompson's syndicated column, April 11, 1943.

³ Dallas (Texas) *Morning News*, April 27, 1943.

⁴ New York *Times*, April 24, 1943.

What can be done to remedy the defects thrown into bold relief by these nation-wide "screening tests"? The pitiable status of English today unfortunately can be traced in a measure to the peace-time colleges which graduated unprepared high school teachers. Moreover, in no few instances college departments of English are persevering in error. With the abrupt decrease in enrollment resulting from the war, some colleges have sought neither to standardize their offerings in English nor to place due emphasis on language studies; but opportunistically, in order to attract wayward students (?), have instead further streamlined and popularized their programs. Instead of presenting essential courses along creative and evolutionary lines in the field of letters, colleges everywhere have been increasingly substituting courses involving such new fads as the psychological and sociological approach, which at their very best, offer only the narrowest possible and often suspect interpretation of English. What is immeasurably worse, in the place of required courses in the history of our language, there is frequently being tendered almost any sort of specialized elective from a comprehensive survey of world literature to an intensive examination of local folk-lore. The regular college programs must rapidly be re-organized to correct these mistakes, for many of the younger students now in attendance will be entering military service tomorrow; and, what is no less significant, others will soon be graduating to become the leaders and teachers of our nation. To be absolutely honest, the college graduate who today has a firm grasp of the development of our language is nothing short of an exception even among English majors!

Meanwhile, besides the regular college programs now continuing, there are the new military training detachments. At the obvious loss of no inconsiderable time and at nobody knows what expense, both the Army and Navy have activated training detachments (most of which still continue) in selected colleges throughout the United States. In these military programs English is a required subject, and the necessity for knowing English has been strongly emphasized by both Secretary of the Navy Knox and Secretary of War Stimson.⁵ In point of fact, military authorities are virtually unanimous in regarding a knowledge of English as one of the prerequisites of an officer. The practical value of English in the field of battle is graphically portrayed by the recent statement from Lt. Gen. George S. Patton. One of his day-by-day ambitions being to write a combat order on a single page and still have it simple, lucid, and impossible of misunderstanding, General Patton states: "If a man can't misunderstand an order, you're halfway to victory."⁶

For serious college teachers the next question is, How can these military needs be best fulfilled? There is, of course, bound to be some variation in

⁵ See Knox and Stimson's letters (April 15 and 4, 1942, respectively) to the Secretary of the College English Association.

⁶ Frederick C. Painton, "Old Man of Battle," *Reader's Digest*, September, 1943.

the English program for special training units of the Army and Navy. From my experience as a college teacher and as a former officer in the Army Air Corps, I have concluded that military students taking English must be confronted with practical realities and that accordingly there are at least six main points which demand emphasis. These I would designate as follows:

1. *Military English Orientation*, which includes theme writing (autobiographical), a speech in which the student introduces himself to the class, and three or four days for discussion of technical military terminology.

2. *Practical Public Speaking*, which covers writing and delivering such types of talks as the speech of introduction, the impromptu speech, the presentation of awards, and the speech of acceptance.

3. *Remedial English, Oral and Written*, which deals with the actual mistakes of the students in written compositions and oral speeches, the construction of the whole composition in terms of its parts, and oral and written drill on spelling and grammatical mistakes.

4. *Reading Range and Comprehension*, which includes precise writing and outlining, discussion and comparison of essays, and oral and written examinations on readings.

5. *Dictionary Study and Vocabulary Building*, which covers lectures on using the dictionary and studies of and tests on prepared lists of Greek combining forms as well as Latin prefixes, suffixes, and stems.

6. *Basic Essentials of Military Correspondence*, which deals with composing the military letter *plus* indorsements, understanding conventional military abbreviations, and interpreting general and special orders, military reports, and War Department circulars.

The first step for the college teacher who seeks to follow a program like this is to have a full understanding of the subject matter. As for teaching techniques, there is probably more need for student discussion and participation than for lectures by the instructor. Visual aids in the form of maps and charts can be used effectively in "Military English Orientation." Blackboard illustrations and phonographic recordings help considerably in teaching "Practical Public Speaking." Mimeographed lists are needed in handling "Dictionary Study and Vocabulary Building." There is, however, danger of neglecting the subject-matter itself if the instructor becomes overloaded with outside aids and techniques of procedure. In general, therefore, the right ends of the course will be always accomplished by relying upon the originality and strength of the individual teacher in command.

College training detachments for military personnel are obviously designed to accomplish practical purposes. It is highly important to observe, then,

the large role that grammar, word derivation—indeed all aspects of language study—play in achieving even a relative mastery of English. This fact should enforce the imperative need both today and tomorrow for English instructors thoroughly schooled in the essentials. The colleges should awaken to the need for linguistic studies among all students. A high duty will be shirked unless the fundamentals are required for the graduates with English majors who are to be the teachers and leaders of tomorrow.

Above all else, military English must be realistic to the extent that the cultural values of English can never be overemphasized in programs for training future officers, inasmuch as it is these officers who not only are our main support in time of war but who as veterans will assume positions of highest responsibility in organizing the peace-time world. By the very nature of things, then, great literature must continue to occupy its lofty place. Even in the lowliest, most elementary course, this aspect should receive proper attention in the readings and still more in subjects suggested for written compositions.⁷ In war- as in peace-time the cultural value of creative literature in mental improvement, moral conduct, and spiritual uplift is incalculable. Thus English should always be taught for what it preëminently is—a creative technique, a boundless source for enrichment in the fine art of living. As General Charles de Gaulle observes:

“The real school of leadership is therefore general culture. . . . There has been no illustrious captain who did not possess taste and a feeling for the heritage of the human mind. At the root of Alexander’s victories one will always find Aristotle.”⁸

The important fact that English is now being required of vast numbers of Army and Navy trainees has a special bearing on the efficiency of our armed forces today. If accepted with proper enthusiasm and understanding, military English can also have a vitally significant and wholly salubrious bearing on the peace-time college program of tomorrow.

⁷ H. Braddy and W. B. Gates, “We Hang Our Heads,” *Texas Outlook* (March, 1944).

⁸ *The Army of the Future* (London, Hutchinson & Co., N. D.), p. 151.

War-time Education in Florida

BY W. T. EDWARDS

Acting Director, Division of Instruction

Schools in Florida have been more affected by a war-time economy perhaps than those in the typical state. During the early days of war, actual invasion or bombing from the air was considered as a probability rather than as a remote possibility. The thinking of the citizens of the State as reflected by various polls of public opinion revealed, even before the actual beginning of the conflict, that Florida would go all out for a successful prosecution of a war which seemed inescapable. In January, 1942, immediately following the attack on Pearl Harbor, the regular monthly publication of the State Department of Education carried specific recommendations for adapting schools to war-time needs prefaced with these statements.

"In the excitement of new conditions we must not forget the fact that the basic responsibilities of schools are in many respects the same as they were one year ago or five years ago. This does not mean that we can afford to be complacent about our effectiveness in discharging these obligations. The present emergency brings into bolder relief the deficiencies of the schools in meeting these continuing obligations. In a sense our main task now is to translate good theory into action, the philosophy of education into a functioning program, and lip service into actual intensive work."¹

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Since January, 1942, important changes have taken place in the curricular offerings of Florida schools. During the five-year period immediately preceding the outbreak of hostilities an intensive program of curriculum revision had been in the process of development. Basic bulletins dealing with the philosophy underlying a school program based upon individual and social needs were prepared and given rather wide distribution and interpretation.² The secondary school received particular emphasis and re-direction so that the attitude of school administrators was at the very outset of the conflict favorable to making necessary changes.

Changes in Graduation Requirements

Early in 1942 the regulations governing the awarding of high school credits and diplomas were revised so as to give proper emphasis to such

¹"Florida Schools and the War Emergency," *Florida School Bulletin*, January, 1942: State Department of Education, Tallahassee.

²See particularly: *Bulletin* 2, "Ways to Better Instruction in Florida Schools"; *Bulletin* 9, "A Guide to Improved Practice in Florida Elementary Schools"; *Bulletin* 10, "A Guide to a Functional Program in the Secondary School."

areas as English, social studies, mathematics, and science. As a result, the requirements for high school graduation at present include three units in English, three units in social studies (one unit of which must be American History and Government), one unit in mathematics (with a strong recommendation for a course in Mathematics Essentials, in addition), one unit in biological science, one unit in home economics (for girls) or one unit in physical science beyond the ninth grade (for boys), and from 180-300 minutes per week in physical education.

Officials representing the armed forces have emphasized particularly the need for (1) practical mathematics, (2) physical science, (3) physical education, (4) health and physical fitness, and (5) civic mindedness. While the units prescribed above insure exposure in most of the areas which need emphasis, they do not, of course, guarantee that the content within the various courses is actually adjusted in keeping with present need. On the assumption that teachers and administrators would request further assistance in adapting their programs to such an end, more detailed suggestions were prepared.

A general bulletin dealing with redirecting the secondary school program of study³ suggests in the field of English, for example, that the content be changed so as to give emphasis to reading skills, vocabulary study, spelling, listening activities, remedial drill, conversation, a study of the newspaper, radio, motion pictures, and practice in the techniques of democratic discussion. In the field of social studies it is suggested that

"So far as possible, the emphasis throughout the seventh and eighth grades should be upon developing an understanding of environmental resources and human resources and how these have interacted upon each other in the Western Hemisphere and in connection with worldwide developments to produce the situation facing us today."

Attention is called to the need for revising the tenth- and eleventh-year courses in social studies so as to throw proper emphasis upon the development of major powers that will be most instrumental in bringing the present conflict to a successful close and in writing a durable peace. Particular attention to Central and South America is also recommended.

Changes Which May Become Permanent

Since many of the changes proposed under the stress of war were already being promoted in the secondary school program of Florida schools, there is reason to hope that many of the trends enumerated will continue. Under the present regulations the senior year has been cleared of required subjects. At the same time a reasonable number of units in each of the broad basic

³ See, "Programs of Study in Florida Secondary Schools," *Florida School Bulletin*, April 15, 1942; State Department of Education, Tallahassee.

fields have been retained but most of the basic units will have been earned during grades 9-11. Since the vocational needs of individuals become more clearly defined near the end of the junior year (or earlier), it is now possible to provide more fully at the twelfth grade and at subsequent levels for specialized needs.

The additional weighting given to social studies seems advisable in view of the tremendous local, state, national, and international problems which must be solved in the immediate future. The lay public generally seems convinced of the wisdom of a health and physical fitness program reaching all individuals. With the return of adequately trained personnel, the area of physical fitness should receive added impetus in the post-war period. Leaders in education should begin now, if they have not already done so, to establish in the mind of the public the necessity for physical fitness in peace time quite as much as in war time.

Adapting High School Requirements for Service Men and Adults

One of the most acute problems facing the secondary schools of Florida is that of making necessary adjustments to enable individuals to continue their education in the face of unavoidable breaks in the educative process. As is the case in other states, much planning has gone on in Florida relative to this matter.⁴ Only two units of "blanket credit" for participation in the armed services have been authorized. Provision has been made for awarding of diplomas to individuals who enlisted or were drafted during the latter part of the senior year. Work done under direction of the Armed Forces Institute has been given full standing.

In addition to the many exceptional cases arising in connection with members of the armed services, a great deal of interest has been shown by adults in Florida interested in completing high school work. A plan which includes the establishment of credit through standardized comprehensive examinations or through tests prepared by qualified local instructors has been endorsed by the State Board of Education. Fifteen high school centers⁵ have been specially designated for evaluation of adult work and for carrying out other details connected with the administration of the plan. The usual regulations for high school graduation have been modified to require, for adults only, eight regular academic units. Several centers report plans under way to aid adults in their learning as well as to provide instruments of evaluation.

⁴ See particularly, "Awarding High School Credits and Diplomas," *Florida School Bulletin*, January, 1944: State Department of Education, Tallahassee.

⁵ For more complete description see: "Information to Adults Concerning High School Credits and Diplomas," and "Additional Information to Principals Regarding Administration of Adult Education Credit Plan," May, 1944: mimeographed material of State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida.

Extensions of the School Program

As has been the case with many other Southern states, much impetus has been given under the impact of a war-time economy to pre-school education in Florida. Under the impact of war and the need for women to work in industrial establishments some 97 nursery school centers involving approximately 283 teachers and 2,768 pupils have been established under funds supplied by the Federal Works Administration. Twenty-eight centers for school age children involving 683 pupils have also been established. In congested areas recreation programs for school age children have been organized under the direction of trained recreational leaders.

The educational programs carried on in the nursery schools are under the supervision of the State Director of Extended School Services in the State Department of Education. Cooperation on the part of the Federal Works Administration, the State Department of Education, the State Defense Council, the State Welfare Board, the State Board of Health, and other groups has contributed materially to the success of the work. It is hoped that experimentation in the area of nursery schools sponsored by the federal government will lead ultimately to the state facing its responsibility at least for the establishment of kindergartens in connection with the regular elementary and secondary school system.

School lunchrooms have also been given stimulation under reimbursement funds provided under the Food Distribution Administration. Over 551 lunchroom centers applied for this aid in 1943-44, and approximately \$700,000 of federal funds will have been used in these centers by the close of the fiscal year. A Supervisor of School Lunch regularly employed by the State Department of Education has given leadership not only with respect to lunchrooms participating in FDA funds but to locally sponsored lunchrooms operated under the P-TA or under the direction of local or County Boards of Education.

Programs of vocational education including rehabilitation service, agriculture, home economics, and training for war industries have been greatly expanded. The post-war period should see further development in this regard. The relationship of the vocational and general education programs will need much careful study looking toward closer integration of effort during the post-war period.

Next Steps in Curriculum Development

It has been indicated that Florida schools were somewhat prepared for change. The problem which has faced school leadership at both the state and local level, however, has been that of preventing the mere acceptance of new patterns for old. Change, in itself, is obviously neither good nor

bad; it is the direction of the change that should be of greatest concern. In returning to a peace-time economy, physical fitness, mathematical ability, social attitudes, and the ability to communicate will still be important. The types of concrete problems may change, but certain basic ideas, knowledge, and skill will be needed in their solution. A functional program of education cannot ignore either basic information or the practical use of knowledge in specific problem situations.

It would be particularly disastrous to assume that either vocational or general education constitute, apart from the other, the complete goal to be sought. The solution of this problem is of great moment in the redirection of post-war education. Unless a proper working relationship is established, a completely separated, dual system of education may result which would be harmful to the individual and dangerous to society.

Many of the innovations brought to the school program through participation in the war effort were justifiable in the light of good educational procedures and aims. If at the present they are justified in the light of long-range goals, as well as in the light of immediate pressures and needs, permanency will result. Unless this philosophy of change prevails, sheer complacency, a return to the *status quo*, or a mere substitution of newer patterns for old (neither of which meets emergency needs) likely will ensue.

SOME OUTSTANDING EFFECTS OF WAR ON SCHOOLS

The war has had, in general, the same effects upon the schools of Florida that are noticeable elsewhere in the South and throughout the nation. The following trends are of particular significance: (1) the decline in available teacher supply, (2) the reduction in the general level of the training of teachers employed, (3) reduction in enrollment (or acceleration in particular war centers), (4) reduction of physical facilities available for schools such as buses and materials for repair and maintenance, and (5) the halting of building construction needed to keep pace with the need arising from deterioration or from destruction by fire.

Decline in Teacher Supply

An indication of the lack of interest in teaching is clearly shown by the large numbers who have left the profession for other positions and the relatively few persons showing interest in the state scholarships available for prospective teachers. Although during the current year 190 scholarships, each worth \$200 a year for four years, were made available to high school graduates willing to prepare themselves for teaching, only 150 applications were received. A large number of counties have their quotas still unfilled.

The reasons given by teachers already in service for leaving the profession are significant. In a study made in April, 1943 the following figures were

obtained regarding reasons given in the case of 1,288 teachers leaving their positions:

To accept teaching positions elsewhere.....	195
To enter the armed services.....	317
To enter war work.....	205
Other reasons.....	571

The large number included in "other reasons" would indicate that living conditions, the lack of reasonable plans for continuity of service, and other personal reasons entered largely into the thinking and attitudes of the teaching personnel. War work and military service were not as prominent factors as one might at first assume. Thus the indirect effects of war through furnishing suitable "escapes" (through marriage or full-time attention to home making) rather than the direct effects have been most pronounced.

Marked shortages in certain fields such as mathematics, science, physical education, librarianship, school administration, and vocational education are probably due to (1) government competition for trained personnel in these fields, and (2) lack of proper planning by colleges in guiding students into fields where shortages exist. Southern Association high schools in Florida are experiencing considerable difficulty in obtaining trained librarians and some report inability to locate desirable candidates for the principalship with the required Master's degree.

Reduction in Level of Training

Although there are no statistics compiled which would prove the point, the general impression is that the training of the average teacher in Florida has dropped from well over three college years to some point between two and three years or even lower. The trend toward poorer average qualifications has been most marked in counties of the State least able to maintain adequate or even minimum salary schedules.

Another indication of the loss in teacher personnel and replacements with persons of limited training is revealed in the large number of "War Provisional" and "Emergency Certificates" issued during 1943-44 as compared with pre-war years. In no single year of the five-year period immediately prior to 1942-43 did emergency certificates total more than 300 in which was included a large percentage of Negro applicants. In 1943-44 the following types of limited certificates were issued:

	<i>White</i>	<i>Negro</i>
War Provisional for Graduates (4 years training)	360	22
War Provisional for Undergraduates (2 years)	307	70
Limited War Provisional (1 to 4 years)	459	115
Emergency (0 to 1 year)	681	256
Totals:	1,807	463

For the preceding year, 1942-43, limited certificates issued to both whites and Negroes amounted in total to 926. The situation thus can be seen to be growing more serious from year to year.

The policy has been to distinguish carefully between short-range, limited certification and long-range certification. No form of automatic extension of certificates is contemplated. The short-range certificates are valid for intervals of one year; if at the close of any year the need for sub-standard teachers is apparent, new applications are filed and new short-range certificates issued. Local authorities control the amount of additional work, if any, which will be required for continued employment.

Decrease in Pupil Enrollment

The average daily attendance of pupils in both elementary and secondary schools has declined. The war has been a major factor in the decrease at the upper level while a low birth rate during depression years has resulted in a temporary decline in elementary school enrollment. First grade enrollments are beginning, however, to increase again. The figures for daily attendance over the three year interval beginning September, 1940, are as follows:

	<i>Elementary</i> (1-6)	<i>Junior High</i> (7-9)	<i>Senior High</i> (10-12)
For the school year 1940-41	135,834	62,626	41,928
For " " " 1941-42	131,858	61,463	41,165
For " " " 1942-43	129,936	57,606	37,590

The results of war-time activities upon the enrollment in war-time centers are illustrated in the case of Bay County (Panama City and vicinity) where the average daily attendance rose from 3,737 in 1941-42 to 5,752 in 1943-44, an increase of over 35 per cent. The problem of supplying building facilities and teaching staff in such war areas has been particularly acute.

PLANNING TO SOLVE PRESENT AND FUTURE PROBLEMS

Local school officials, the Florida Education Association, and other groups working with the State Department of Education have inaugurated several plans to overcome the difficulties encountered and to plan cooperatively for the future. Among the steps taken are the following:

1. The expansion of state aid for local supervisory services has been achieved through action of the 1943 legislature. A minimum of \$1,600 is available to each county for general supervision, particularly with respect to supervisory services in rural schools and in elementary schools. Provision

has been made for full-time and part-time general and special supervisory service under an individual county or joint-county plan. Only 14 of the 67 counties of the state are without any form of county-wide supervision and several of these counties have applied for state aid in this regard for 1944-45. Supervisors are providing definite aid to emergency and sub-standard teachers pressed into service during the war emergency.

2. Plans for changing the allotment of state aid to include both a large fund and a stabilization or foundation fund are underway. A special session of the legislature to allocate an additional \$2,300,000 of state funds to schools has been proposed but differences of opinion among the legislative and executive branches of state government make the calling of a special session doubtful. Retroactive payment of such additional funds at the time of the regular session of the legislature in April, 1945, is a possibility, should the special session not be called.

3. A special committee of the Florida Education Association reporting at the general assembly of the Association in April, 1944, at Daytona Beach recommended a thorough study of the school needs of the state. A proposed bill has been drafted for presentation either at the special or regular session of the legislature carrying \$18,000 for making such a survey. It is hoped that an adequate program designed to meet long-range needs will be formulated, parts of which can be enacted into law as the finances of the state and public opinion will permit.

4. Plans for similar surveys to be made at the county and individual school levels are also being considered.

5. The State Department of Education in cooperation with the State Planning Board, the Florida State College for Women, the University of Florida, the Florida Agricultural and Mechanical College is jointly sponsoring a project designed to assist in reorienting education in the direction of conservation and proper utilization of the natural and human resources of the state and region. A grant of \$20,800 from the General Education Board for a three-year program has been received.

6. The library service to schools has been greatly expanded, and savings made through careful administration of textbook funds may be used for purchase of books on the approved state list. Library materials and other teaching aids will doubtless receive further stimulation from state expenditures in the post-war period.

7. Further development of the school lunch program is contemplated. Improved sanitation in lunchrooms will be stimulated through regular in-

spections by the State Board of Health. Making the lunchroom program an integral part of the instructional program of the school will be a continuing objective.

8. Continuation of the careful budgetary proceedings already authorized and required by law will make for continued improvement of school finance.

9. Closer cooperation between schools and county health units should result in improved health conditions particularly in counties where conditions are now sub-standard. This emphasis on health should continue into the post-war period.

10. A decided awakening with respect to the need for guidance and for better pupil accounting is evident. Definite plans for implementing such a program have not yet been formulated.

Some Effects of the War on Kentucky Schools

BY MARK GODMAN

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Teachers

The war has caused a critical shortage of teachers in Kentucky schools. In the high school this shortage is most acute in the fields of agriculture, industrial arts, physical education, science, mathematics, and commercial education. In the elementary schools, the shortage is most critical in the small rural schools.

Approximately 25,000 persons hold Kentucky teachers' certificates. Of this number, nearly 5,000 are in the armed forces. The available teaching positions in Kentucky number around 18,000. Only 14,000 of the teachers filling these positions hold certificates that completely meet state certifying requirements. The remaining 4,000 teachers are teaching on temporary certificates that are granted only for the period of the war emergency.

In connection with this discussion it should be noted that fewer and fewer persons are entering the teaching profession. In 1940 approximately 1,600 persons entered the field of teaching in Kentucky for the first time. Last year, three years later, only 720 persons holding regular certificates entered teaching for the first time in this state.

Through the war emergency period, Kentucky has maintained the same high standards for the issuance of regular certificates. The standards have not been lowered. The State Board of Education has attempted, however, to solve the teacher shortage problem by adopting rather low standards for the issuance of emergency certificates. The following distribution of emergency certificates according to training reveals the extent to which requirements have been lowered for issuance of such certificates so as to provide a sufficient number of teachers to fill vacancies:

- 14.7 per cent have not completed high school
- 18.7 per cent have completed high school but have
no college training
- 33.4 per cent have no college training
- 85.5 per cent have less than two years of college
training
- 95.2 per cent are not college graduates

Approximately 4,000 emergency certificates were issued for the school-year 1943-44. Present indications are that approximately 5,100 will be issued to take care of vacancies in 1944-45.

Last year it was decided to inaugurate a program that would provide opportunities for additional preparation of prospective teachers as near to their homes and at as little expense as possible. It was found on investigation that few of the prospective teachers planned to attend summer schools on college campuses. Hence a program of county workshops was developed by which the services of the colleges were taken to the teachers, where such services were desired. These county workshops offered refresher courses to former teachers who were going back into the teaching profession. They also provided additional training to emergency teachers whose teaching was substandard, and they also offered in-service education to regular teachers.

During the summer of 1943, county workshops were conducted by the state colleges in twenty-five counties with 1,540 teachers and prospective teachers in attendance. During the first term of the present summer workshops have been conducted in fourteen counties with 1,000 teachers attending. Sixty-four per cent of the teachers attending were emergency teachers. Other county workshops will be held in the second summer term.

Despite the many obstacles that are faced by the schools, Kentucky is making every effort to enable the schools to render better services. Definite steps have been taken to develop an improved program of supervision by the state and by local school districts working cooperatively. Working in close cooperation, the state colleges and the State Department of Education have taken the lead in developing programs of training for county supervisors and helping teachers. One workshop for such teachers was held at one college this spring, with helping teachers attending from twelve counties. Another workshop for supervisors and helping teachers was also held. The aggregate enrollment in these two workshops was twenty-seven. Beginning with the second summer term, another helping-teacher workshop will be held at the University of Kentucky. The aggregate number is expected to range from twenty to forty persons. The outlook now is that from sixty to eighty helping teachers and supervisors will be added to our county system of schools during the coming school year as a result of these workshops. All of this causes one to feel that the outlook is more hopeful for education in Kentucky.

School Census

Kentucky has two units of public school administration, the 120 county school units and the 137 independent school districts. In the past three years the school census in these districts has decreased 77,482 or 9.47 per cent. The county districts have suffered a greater loss in census than have the independent districts. The percentage of loss in the county districts is 10.23 per cent, while the loss in the independent districts has been 8.58 per cent. This decrease has been due primarily to the migration of people to

defense areas. It is estimated that there will be in the neighborhood of 14,000 fewer children on the school census during the coming year than were on the census last year.

Enrollments

The enrollment in our elementary and high schools has decreased 46,777, or 7.68 per cent during the past three years. In the county school districts the loss in enrollment was greater in the elementary grades, while in the independent districts the loss was greater in the high school grades. During this period the county enrollment dropped 9.34 per cent in the elementary grades and 4.15 per cent in the high schools. In the independent districts the loss in enrollment in the elementary grades was 3.91 per cent, while in the high school the drop was 8.62 per cent. The elementary loss for the state as a whole was greater than the loss in high school. The elementary grades of the state as a whole dropped 7.93 per cent in enrollment while the high schools dropped 6.40 per cent. Again, as in the census, the county school systems suffered the greater loss. The enrollment for the counties dropped 8.74 per cent, while the independent districts dropped 5.19 per cent. So far as statistics are concerned, the war does not seem to have affected the enrollment. The enrollment has dropped in proportion to the school census. We do know, however, that a number of boys and girls past sixteen years of age who in normal times would have entered school have not done so. Some of them have been attracted away from school on account of high wages in industry and some, of course, have entered the armed services.

Average Daily Attendance

The most alarming result of the war as far as our school statistics show is the rapid decrease in the average daily attendance. During the past three years the average daily attendance has dropped 59,405 or 12.04 per cent. It seems that the schools in the rural areas have been hit the harder by the war. The average daily attendance for the counties dropped 13.29 per cent during these years, while the independent districts dropped 9.30 per cent in the same period. In the counties the drop ran about the same in the elementary grades as in high school grades. The elementary grades for the counties dropped 13.32 per cent while the high school dropped 13.16 per cent. In the independent districts the drop in average daily attendance was far greater in high school than in the grades. In independent districts the average daily attendance dropped 7.14 per cent in the elementary grades and 12.49 per cent in high school. In the rural areas there has been a severe shortage of farm labor which has forced the children to work and therefore has interfered with their school attendance. In the cities working has had its effect along with juvenile delinquency and truancy. The high schools in the matter of average daily attendance have suffered more in the independent districts.

Curricular Adjustments

For the sake of brevity, I will list rather than discuss some of the curricular adjustments that have been made in the elementary and secondary schools because of the war:

1. New or increased emphasis upon programs involving all phases of health education;
2. Rather widespread teaching of courses in pre-flight aeronautics in high school;
3. Greatly improved facilities for providing occupational information and guidance of pupils into critical war services;
4. Increased emphasis on high-school mathematics and science;
5. Increased emphasis on training for democratic living through community and classroom activities;
6. Provision for pre-induction training courses for the armed forces and increased preparatory training for civilian occupations and services.

Two subject fields in our high school curriculum have been particularly affected by the war. They are vocational home economics and vocational agriculture. It is believed that some discussion of the situation in reference to these two fields of instruction in Kentucky high schools during the war period may be of some interest to the reader.

In the field of vocational home economics, for example, twenty-two departments in our high schools have been closed because of inability to secure teachers. Graduates in home economics, preferring not to teach, have gone into government work, chemical laboratories in defense plants, or have married and followed their husbands.

The home economics teachers' work has increased greatly because of additional problems facing families and because of many additional requests for their time. There are approximately 250 vocational home economics departments in Kentucky high schools. Of the teachers employed in these departments, 54 per cent are now working with at least three other groups in addition to carrying on their regular program of home economics classes for girls. These groups are such as adult groups, elementary school programs, school lunch programs, boys' classes, community agencies such as Department of Health, Red Cross, etc. More than one third of the teachers are teaching and supervising in school community canneries.

The school lunch program in Kentucky is under the supervision of the State Department of Education. The State Department is assuming the responsibility of giving help with lunch programs instead of having this job directed by a separate agency outside the educational system. Approxi-

mately one-half of the home economics teachers are helping to supervise the school lunch program—planning the menus, supervising the preparation and serving of lunches, buying supplies, and giving general supervision to the lunch management. The teachers are giving particular emphasis to making the school lunch program an educational program. They are doing this through attempting to develop good food habits on the part of the pupils, through making the activities connected with the operation of the program actual learning situations, and through interpreting the lunch programs to the students and the parents through newspaper articles, assembly programs, personal conferences, etc.

In the field of vocational agriculture, 140 teachers have entered the armed forces. This has resulted in an acute shortage of teachers in this field. In 1941 there were 270 departments of vocational agriculture in Kentucky. More than 100 of these departments are now closed. Even with the lowering of some of the technical agriculture required of new teachers, we continue to find it impossible to secure many teachers in this field for our schools.

During the war emergency there has been a definite tendency to make the entire program of education function more effectively in the lives of the people; that is, to help real people solve real problems. One outstanding development in Kentucky is the establishment of 150 school community canneries. These canneries are used in order to provide needed instruction in the preservation of food. They offer an opportunity for a coördinated program involving production under the direction of the teacher of agriculture, and proper nutrition and meal planning under the direction of the teacher of home economics. They also provide facilities for schools to do the needed canning for school lunch programs. It appears that the school community cannery is a significant step in the direction of having people do for themselves in order that they may be stronger, more vigorous, and happier Americans.

Emphasis has been given to providing shop courses especially to young people out-of-school. This trend is sure to continue after the war, in view of the fact that the people on the land are rearing more children than can find employment in the community in which they were born. It is necessary to equip these people for work in order that they may go into the labor market, at home or abroad, and take their place in a dignified and effective way in the economic and vocational life of America. More than 225 good shops have been established and operated in connection with departments of vocational agriculture. In addition to these shops, area or centralized trade schools have been started in more than a dozen centers throughout Kentucky. These schools are departmentalized and equipped to teach practically any trade for which a youth, a returning soldier, or a

displaced war worker would need to prepare. It appears that area vocational schools may be the rule rather than the exception in the post-war period.

Definite plans are being made by the various divisions of the Department of Education in cooperation with all school people in the state to the end that a functioning program of education may be provided for all the people. A careful inventory is being made of all facilities, and these facilities are being contrasted with need. In the future it appears that Kentucky schools will concern themselves with the real problems of real people, and that information will be brought to bear on the solution of these problems as it is needed. Emphasis will be given to the matter of developing effective abilities and desirable attitudes as well as that of merely acquiring information.

Georgia Schools During the War Program

BY W. E. PAFFORD

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War necessitates changes and readjustments. It requires alterations in plans and in manners of living. It has its effect upon every phase of life, and education is not exempted from its influence. Many changes in the schools of this state during the last few years were made because of the war, but not all of them. In a number of instances, readjustments which would have been made at some time in the future were speeded and facilitated by the war. Changes made in Georgia Schools may be classified under the following heads: (1) Defense Training program; (2) State War-time Education Commission; (3) Loss of Qualified Teachers; (4) Changes in Requirements for Teachers' Certificates; (5) Increases in Salaries of Public School Teachers; (6) Expansion of Rehabilitation Service; (7) Gains and Losses in High School Enrollment; (8) Accrediting Agencies Reorganized; (9) Development of State Trades Schools; (10) Educational Panel of the Georgia Development Board.

DEFENSE TRAINING PROGRAM

The present World War affected very definitely the lives of all American people long before we were forced into it as a participant. Many things to which we had become accustomed were restricted. Young men were inducted for military training as a defensive measure. An inventory revealed that the number of people possessing skills essential to mechanized warfare was inadequate. The programs of many of the secondary schools of Georgia were expanded to provide instruction in such courses as woodwork, auto repairs and repair of farm machinery. Because of the lack of an adequate number of trained instructors in these fields, skilled workmen were employed on part-time or full-time basis to serve as instructors under the supervision of teachers of vocational agriculture. The Federal Government provided, free of cost to the schools, a considerable amount of equipment that was necessary for such instruction. A large number of high school students and out-of-school youth were given training in preparation for specialized services in the armed forces or for replacing men called from civilian occupations to military service. The success of this Defense Training program is all the more remarkable when it is recalled that the extremely inadequate supply of instructors in these fields was constantly being reduced as teachers were induced to leave the classrooms to enter industries and the armed forces. The loss to the schools of teachers of vocational agriculture was especially great. For the school year 1941-1942, 402 of these teachers were employed in our public schools. For the year 1943-44, the number had been reduced to 282.

WAR-TIME EDUCATION COMMISSION

The changes which were made in the schools in conformity to the needs of the Defense Program were achieved by processes of evolution. The changes necessitated by the entrance of our nation into the war as a combatant took on some of the features of a revolution. This was true not so much of content as of method and emphasis. In accordance with the suggestion made by the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Dr. J. W. Studebaker, our State Superintendent of Schools, Dr. M. D. Collins, appointed members of a War-time Education Commission to recommend changes which should be made in the schools to enable them to meet better the needs of the nation at war. The first important contribution of this Commission was the publication of the bulletin, "How the Schools Can Help Win the War," carrying such recommendations as seemed advisable to the Commission at the time. School people were ready and anxious for constructive suggestions and the faculties of the different schools started immediately making such adjustments as seemed advisable and their personnel and facilities would permit.

The second important contribution of the Commission was the organization of the High School Victory Corps with Dr. O. C. Aderhold, Professor of Vocational Education of the University of Georgia, as Director. A staff was formed of about forty people from the State Department of Education and from the teacher-training institutions of the State. Effort was made to learn from the war industries, government agencies, and the different divisions of the armed forces the things that the schools could do that would contribute most to the war effort. With the information obtained as a basis, a program to be recommended to the high schools was developed. The State was divided into areas of three to five counties each with a member of the staff assigned as consultant for each area. The program prepared by the High School Victory Corps was accepted as the program of about 90 per cent of the high schools of the State.

The greatest need, according to representatives of the armed forces, was physical fitness. Sixteen conferences on physical fitness were held in different sections of the State. Experts in this field were secured from the colleges, the U. S. Office of Education, and the armed forces, to serve as leaders or instructors in these conferences. These were well attended by representatives of the secondary schools who immediately started organizing for physical fitness programs in their schools.

The subject-matter fields which were chosen for special emphasis were practical mathematics; physics, with the gas motor and the radio receiving major consideration; citizenship, with special attention to the issues of the war, the reasons for the regulations, rationing, and special drives associated with the war program; English language or communications, with emphasis upon the development of ability to express ideas clearly in either spoken or

written form; food production and conservation; pre-induction shop courses, which expanded upon the work done during the Defense Training program. The following chart shows the number of high schools participating in the Victory Corps program and the number of pupils enrolled in each of the pre-induction courses:

	<i>No. of Schools</i>	<i>No. of Students</i>
I. TOTAL NUMBER IN STATE.....	493	85, 348
II. PRE-INDUCTION COURSES OR UNITS DESIGNATED AS SUCH:		
a. Total number of schools offering them and total number of students enrolled.....	444	76, 813
b. Fundamentals of Electricity.....	132	2, 981
c. Fundamentals of Automotive Mechanics.....	84	1, 807
d. Fundamentals of Machines.....	103	2, 217
e. Fundamentals of Radio.....	63	1, 373
f. Fundamentals of Shopwork.....	174	6, 093
g. Fundamentals of Radio Code (with or without typing).....	10	452
h. Physical Education.....	368	54, 687
i. Health Education.....		
j. Military Drill.....	150	22, 107
k. Pre-Flight Aeronautics.....	77	3, 132
l. First Aid.....	154	18, 607
m. Driver Education.....	69	2, 691
n. Photography.....	12	293
o. Sheet Metal.....	22	806
p. Welding.....	69	1, 150
q. Carpentry.....	105	3, 231
III. PRE-INDUCTION UNITS IN THE FOLLOWING:		
a. English—Junior or Senior (Language Com- munication and Reading).....	224	16, 825
b. Social Studies, "Issues of War".....	283	22, 887
c. Simple Mathematics.....	306	30, 185
d. Clerical Procedures.....	120	5, 886
e. Mechanical Drawing.....	41	3, 556
f. Engineering.....	3	33
g. Physics.....	190	4, 534

Prior to the organization of the Victory Corps program, a great majority of the secondary schools had little or nothing in the field of guidance. Only a very few schools had as members of the high school staffs people with training for this type of work. In spite of this shortage, guidance was selected as one of the fields for major emphasis. A bulletin was prepared outlining plans which might be followed by schools without trained counsel-

ors and distributed among the schools. In the spring of 1944, a Supervisor of Occupational Information and Guidance was added to the staff of the State Department of Education.

In the field of Community War Services, large numbers of students participated in such activities as salvage drives, bond and stamp sales, rationing and the food-for-freedom program.

For the school year 1943-1944, readjustments were made to allow elementary schools to participate in the phases of the program that were suitable for the pupils of those grades. The name was changed to the Victory School Program, of which the High School Victory Corps was a part.

As was true with the Defense Training program, one of the greatest obstacles to be overcome in the Victory School Program is the shortage of properly qualified teachers. With the schools staffed as they were in 1939, the readjustments called for in the Victory Corps and Victory School programs would have been much less difficult. The fields designated for greatest emphasis, such as physical education, mathematics, physics, agriculture, and the commercial subjects, are the fields from which the greatest numbers of teachers had been drawn to supply the needs of war industries, agencies of the Federal Government, and the armed forces. There were many reasons for becoming discouraged, but teachers generally accepted this program as a call from the Government for the performance of tasks that could be made to contribute to the winning of the war. In many instances where teachers were giving instruction in entirely new fields, it was agreed that a very good learning situation existed, with teacher and pupils learning together.

During the year 1943-1944, there was less fan-fare and fewer of the demonstrations than were associated with the Victory Corps program during the organization year, but in a large per cent of the schools, the recommendations of the Victory Corps were incorporated as parts of the regular school program. Many of them will remain after the emergency is over.

LOSS OF QUALIFIED TEACHERS

The following diagram shows the distribution of certificates held by public school teachers during the last seven years. The provisions of the Seven Months School Law making training and experience the bases of the salary schedule for state-paid teachers were applied for the first time during the school term 1937-1938. From that year until the year 1941-1942, there was a definite trend toward the reduction of the number of teachers employed with certificates based upon less than two years of college training and an increase in the number with more than two years of college. Since Pearl Harbor, the trend has been reversed. The number of teachers with low qualifications in 1943-1944 would have been still greater except for the fact that the number of state-paid teachers had been reduced by approximately five hundred. (See table, next page.)

CERTIFICATES OF TEACHERS ON STATE PAYROLL

	<i>White</i>					<i>Colored</i>					<i>Coun-ty Li-cense</i>		
	<i>Years in college</i>					<i>Years in college</i>					<i>Less than 1 yr.</i>		
	5	4	3	2	1	5	4	3	2	1	1	1	1
1937-38	321	6260	1608	4939	1936	15	937	179	938	688	632	3146	
1938-39	661	6288	2104	4910	1346	44	1338	280	1376	1116	390	2301	
1939-40	645	6951	2198	4481	1056	46	1493	369	1615	1259	284	1895	
1940-41	790	7342	2204	4642	745	59	1675	484	1907	1248	156	1594	
1941-42	838	7546	2279	4485	585	56	1791	593	2094	1150	94	1308	
1942-43	816	7371	2246	4686	657	49	1906	729	2288	1014	85	1603	
1943-44	820	6971	2066	4273	698	45	1689	774	2077	880	72	2015	

Requirements for the regular types of certificates have not been lowered because of the shortage of qualified teachers. State certificates based upon less than two years of college credits are renewable, but certificates of these types are not being issued. After the war, professional certificates will require four years or more of college credit. Emergency certificates, good for a period of one year, are issued, upon request of superintendents, to persons who did not complete the required number of professional courses for a regular certificate while in college and to others who have not taught for a number of years and have allowed their certificates to expire. A number of people who could qualify for neither a regular nor an emergency state certificate were issued licenses by the county superintendents of schools.

Beginning with the year 1943-1944, professional certificates were issued to selected persons who completed one year of approved study beyond the Bachelor's degree, which was planned to prepare the teacher for service as a principal or as a supervisor of instruction. This additional year of study does not necessarily meet the requirements for a Master's degree in education, and the Master's degree does not necessarily meet the requirements for either of these professional certificates.

INCREASES IN SALARIES

The teacher salary schedule of the state, while still below the national average, has been increased twice since the beginning of the war and has been readjusted to make it correspond more nearly with those of other Southeastern states. The amount that salaries are supplemented locally is dependent upon the financial ability of the local system. The ranges of state salaries for teachers for each of the years 1941-42 to 1944-45 are as follows:

1941-42.....	\$175.00-	\$ 720
1942-43.....	218.75-	900
1943-44.....	218.75-	900
1944-45.....	252.00-	1,210

A comparison which was made in 1944 of the Georgia salary schedule with schedules of other Southeastern states showed that we were paying lower salaries than any of these states to teachers with two or more years of college training and higher salaries than any of them to white teachers with lesser qualifications. Governor Ellis Arnall, by executive order, made available to the State Board of Education sufficient funds to pay the state schedule of salaries to teachers for two additional months and readjustments were made in the schedule so as to encourage professional preparation and growth of teachers.

Provision for a state teacher retirement plan was authorized by the State Legislature in 1943. The Governor, by executive order, has set aside one million dollars of state funds to make it possible for the retirement program to become effective in 1945.

EXPANSION OF REHABILITATION

The program of rehabilitation has expanded more than any other phase of education. The three reasons for this are: (1) the need for the services of physically handicapped people in the war industries; (2) the anticipated need for the rehabilitation of wounded service men; and (3) financing of the program entirely by the Federal Government. The extent of the expansion in this field is indicated by the numbers rehabilitated during the last four years:

1940-41.....	290
1941-42.....	413
1942-43.....	2109
1943-44.....	2771

The staff has been increased from 11 to 71, 26 of whom are men. There are now twelve district offices instead of four, and the administrative expenditures will be approximately \$350,000 annually instead of the modest amount which was available when Federal funds could be received for this purpose only on a matching basis. The program was revised to include physical restoration when necessary to make a person employable. The most interesting innovation in this field is the employment clinic which brings the handicapped persons and prospective employers together. Training or physical restoration or both will be directed toward preparing the individual to do efficient work in the job for which he was selected by the employer.

GAINS AND LOSSES IN HIGH SCHOOL ENROLLMENT

As indicated by the chart given below, there has been a definite loss in the enrollment of white high school students. The greatest losses have been found in the upper grades where ordinarily a number of students eighteen years of age or older are enrolled. It was expected that loss in enrollment of boys would be greater than the loss in enrollment of girls since the Selective Service does not apply to girls. An interesting fact which the chart does not indicate is that the private schools for whites have had increases in enrollment for the year just closed. Two reasons for this are obvious. The parents have more money with which to pay the cost for attendance at private schools, and many of the boys desire military training before being inducted and only a small per cent of public schools offer military training. The increased enrollment in Negro high schools for 1943-44 is explained by the increased holding power of the schools and additional provisions for transportation of high school students. There is also the fact that higher wages have possibly enabled Negro parents to keep their children in school better.

ENROLLMENT IN ACCREDITED HIGH SCHOOLS OF GEORGIA

	<i>White</i>	<i>Colored</i>
<i>1940-41</i>		
Boys	43, 521	3, 588
Girls	48, 211	6, 327
<i>1941-42</i>		
Boys	44, 085	4, 566
Girls	49, 476	8, 678
<i>1942-43</i>		
Boys	42, 645	3, 969
Girls	48, 110	8, 004
<i>1943-44</i>		
Boys	38, 482	4, 414
Girls	46, 309	9, 747

ACCREDITING AGENCIES REORGANIZED

The details of a plan for the rating of elementary and secondary schools by a single accrediting commission are now being completed. The reasons for the merger of the three agencies which have been accrediting schools in the state are (1) to emphasize the equality or importance of, and to urge equality of opportunity for efficient instruction in both the elementary and the secondary schools; (2) to encourage development of a program for the whole school by the whole school staff providing for coordination and continuity. Some of the standards for the accrediting of high schools which will become effective in 1946-47, if the war is over and conditions will warrant, are (1) the high school must maintain an average daily attendance of sixty or more pupils; (2) a beginner principal must hold a principal's certificate based upon college graduation, definite preparation for the work of the principal, and three years of successful experience as a teacher; (3) the salary of the principal must not be less than that of any other member of the high school staff; (4) sanitary conditions in the school and provisions for the safety and health of students and teachers must conform to standards approved by the State Departments of Health and Education.

TRADE SCHOOLS

Only a comparatively small number of secondary schools in this state have been able to provide adequate opportunities for training in the trades. The scarcity of equipment and of teachers with the required training has hindered progress in this area. Enrollments in small high schools make the cost of such instruction prohibitive. With the return of people from the military services to be trained for peace-time occupations, and with the probable conversion or closing of war-time industries necessitating the re-

training of war workers for trades in which they will be able to find employment, the schools of Georgia are facing a responsibility which we are not prepared at present to meet. We believe, however, that we will be in much better condition in this respect by the end of the war than we have been in the past. The State Board of Education has adopted a three-fold plan providing for (1) three State Trade Schools located in the northern, central and southern sections of the state with personnel and facilities adequate to meet the needs of those who cannot be provided for otherwise: (2) a number of Area Trade Schools to be located in or near industrial centers and operated as part of the public school systems in which they are located; (3) courses in shop work, industrial arts, etc. in the secondary schools where the enrollment is large enough to justify such expansion of the curriculum.

Teacher-training institutions are now offering courses for teachers of industrial arts. Much of the equipment provided by the Federal Government for use in the Defense Training program and in the NYA program will be made available to supplement shop equipment already on hand. One of the plants used for an NYA Resident Project with the necessary equipment for training in wood and machine shop, radio, laundry, bakery, and commercial courses has been converted into the first of the state trade schools, and it is now operating at approximately full capacity with a very competent staff. Other units will begin operation as the need develops and as facilities and personnel can be provided.

EDUCATIONAL PANEL

One of the seven panels of the State Agricultural and Industrial Development Board, or the Georgia Development Board as it is sometimes called, has been assigned responsibility for promoting educational progress in the State. The State Superintendent of Schools is Chairman of the panel, and Dr. O. C. Aderhold is serving as Director. A staff of ten professional school people was organized. Six members of the staff will serve as consultants to local people in different areas as they formulate plans for the improvements of the schools in their communities and systems. Others will serve as consultants in special fields as, administration, school buildings, the program of the school, etc. School leaders, from the twelve counties selected for the beginning of the development program, participated in a work shop during the first six weeks of the summer term of the University of Georgia.

The Director of the Educational Panel was in charge of the workshop. Members of the panel staff and members of the supervisory staff of the State Department of Education served as consultants. Plans were developed for the beginning of the work in the different counties. Recommendations which were made by participants in the workshop are being incorporated in a "School Leaders' Manual," which will serve as a guide to school leaders

in carrying on the work. Family census, spot maps showing where the children live, surveys of buildings and equipment, and surveys of occupations entered by pupils leaving school will provide part of the information necessary for the work of the panel. Planning is a part of the responsibility of this panel. After plans have been developed by the people concerned and with the counsel and assistance of staff members, it will then be the purpose of the panel and its staff to assist in achieving the readjustments and improvements recommended.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is admitted that there have been some retrogressions due to the war. Most of these are attributable to the loss of qualified teachers and the inability to secure building materials, classroom equipment, buses, and skilled labor for the construction and repair of buildings. We have reason to believe that these temporary losses will be offset as soon as the war is over. Bond issues have been voted for the construction, remodeling, or repair of buildings in a number of places, and work will begin as soon as materials and labor are available. Nearly all of the county boards of education are carrying balances in their treasuries for the purchase of transportation equipment as soon as it can be had. There are evidences which indicate that the increases in teachers' salaries and the provision for retirement have not only checked the trend away from the classroom, but that teachers engaged in other types of work are planning to return to the profession.

Some positive gains have been made either in spite of or because of the difficulties faced by the schools of Georgia during the emergency. Readjustments in school programs which principals and teachers would like to have made before were given the enthusiastic approval of the public when they were made in the name of patriotism. We have been taught practical lessons in how to take what we have and make the best possible use of it. The need of the teachers with emergency certificates and county licenses for professional assistance has given impetus to the in-service teacher-training program. The State Council on Teacher Education developed plans for a number of workshops and clinics to be held at the teacher-training institutions and also at the places where the participating teachers are employed. College credit can be given for off-campus workshop experiences if the work is carried on under conditions approved by the Council. Progress has been made in securing community cooperation in the development of the school staff, discuss with them matters related to the improvement of the school, and work out plans for making the improvements decided upon.

The war program has pointed out some deficiencies in the work of our schools. Not all of the criticisms are well-founded, but it is evident that some of them are. The public has been rather lenient in its attitude toward

school people as these deficiencies are being called to our attention. We can hardly expect this attitude to be continued if corrections are not made. Experimentation by the different branches of the armed forces have resulted in the development of some valuable educational techniques. Some of them would be superior to present practices if adopted in our schools, but not all of them. It is important that we acquaint ourselves with these new developments as a means of improving the educational advantages offered by the schools. It is also important that we be prepared to explain to the satisfaction of the returning service men why some of the educational practices which serve efficiently under military conditions are not applicable to regular school situations.

An evaluation of the educational losses suffered and gains made during the war period gives some basis for encouragement. Most of the losses are only temporary and provisions have been made for their correction. We have reason to believe that many of the gains are permanent.

Post-War Educational Planning in Texas

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The war is having its impact upon the educational program in Texas just as it is in the other states of the Union, and it is doubtful if this impact differs very much from that of the other states in the Southern Association. Many teachers have left the classroom for the Armed Services or for employment in industries vital to the war effort. Approximately forty per cent of the trained teaching personnel has left the classroom of our schools since December, 1941. Approximately 500 rural schools closed their doors last year for lack of teachers. The standard for degree teachers in accredited schools has not been lowered, yet it has been necessary to use many under-graduate teachers on a one-year substitute basis during this time of emergency. College enrollment has greatly decreased, and the number of students taking training for the teaching profession is negligible in comparison to the number five or six years ago. The problem of school finance is very acute. Necessary changes that have been made in the school curriculum so that the schools may better fit into the war effort will have a lasting influence on the schools of tomorrow. These are some of the problems confronting education in Texas today, and they make post-war educational planning essential to the progress of education in the State.

At the suggestion of President Humphrey of the Southern Association, a group of college presidents and deans recently held in Austin, Texas, a two-day conference on post-war educational planning. A permanent state-wide committee was formed with President J. G. Flowers of the Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos, Texas, as chairman. This committee will meet periodically and make careful study of certain phases of post-war education in Texas, especially that which affects education above the secondary school level.

When approaching the study of post-war educational planning, one is confronted with the question, "Educational planning for whom?" Is it planning an educational program for the returning soldiers? Is it an educational program for assisting the defense worker to return to useful employment in peace-time industry? Is it a rehabilitation program for the casualties of war? Is it a movement to promote a return to college and the traditional academic training offered by the great majority of educational institutions above the secondary level? Is it a program designed to perpetuate the traditional conception of higher education as being only for the highly

intellectual few? Or is post-war planning to take on the broad concept of planning the type of educational program best suited to every group of our citizenry? These questions must be answered before effective post-war educational planning can be accomplished.

The aim of a tax-supported educational program in a democracy is to develop the youth of the land into useful citizenship. This does not mean to select a few and give them the benefits of selected training, but rather to provide an educational program that will fit the needs of every child and develop every child into a useful citizen.

There are two theories in education, economics, and sociology. One theory is that the government should give special aid to a selected few, and through these few the benefits will trickle down to the masses. Early in the 1930's the Federal Government gave financial aid only to the large corporations on the theory that these in turn would give employment to a great number of people and thus aid the masses. The Federal Government changed its policy and for the last ten or twelve years it has given aid of one kind or another directly to the masses. Education has followed the principle too long of training a selected few on the theory that the education of the masses will be increased from the training of the selected few. It is time that those who do post-war planning in education give thought to the type of educational program that will lift the educational level of the masses in the Southland. The progress of any state is dependent upon the nature and extent of its natural resources, its people and their educational level. The group of states comprising the Southern Association has within its borders approximately eighty per cent of the natural resources of this nation. Although this group of states has eighty per cent of the natural resources, yet these same states have only approximately twenty per cent of the national income. The natural resources and the people of the Southern Association States are more or less a constant, but the educational level can be greatly raised and must be raised if this section is to go forward in the post-war period. Post-war planning must seek to raise the educational level of all the people in these states.

What constitutes useful citizenship? We might list the seven cardinal principles of education, but we prefer to list only the following as prerequisites to useful citizenship: sound health, character, vocational efficiency, and intelligent and wholesome attitudes. These by liberal interpretation would suffice. The educational institutions supported by public taxation for the development of useful citizens are elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, junior colleges, senior colleges, and graduate schools. The elementary schools in Texas enrolled last year approximately eighty per cent of the total population six to twelve years of age; the junior high

schools approximately sixty-five per cent of those thirteen to fifteen years of age; the senior high schools enrolled approximately fifty per cent of those sixteen to eighteen years of age. Approximately fifteen per cent of the group nineteen to twenty-five years of age has been enrolled for one or more terms in an institution of higher learning. These figures include the Anglo-American, Latin-American, and the Negro population. From this we can plainly see that post-war educational planning at the college level is important, but it is not sufficient within itself. If the public tax supported school is to serve its mission in a democracy, it must give to every student the prerequisites for good citizenship listed above. Since we are losing thirty-five per cent at the junior high school level, more attention must be given to vocational training at this level. Senior high schools are only holding approximately one-half of the students of high school age; therefore increased vocational training must be given at the secondary level. In the post-war period it may be that vocational training will become the great objective of the junior college. The point that we wish to make here is that every student in a democracy is entitled to receive vocational training before leaving the public schools, and if circumstances make it necessary for any student to leave the public school at any particular level, then he should have received vocational training at or below that level.

While higher education has given its attention mainly to training for the professions (teachers, ministers, doctors, lawyers) and special training in trades and industries, the college trainees have become, in the main, foremen, managers, engineers, and research workers. The professions listed above and the leaders in trades and industries together comprise only approximately five per cent of the adult population. This group of professional and industrial leaders are the parents of approximately two per cent of the child population of the Southern States. The writer was recently a member of a civic club which rendered a very commendable service to the civic and community life. Each member of the club was a leader in the business or professional life of the community. There were sixty men in the club and fifty-four of them had wives, which made a total of one hundred fourteen adults represented by the roster of the club. These adults were the parents of ninety-six children. It can readily be seen that the population of our State would decrease if this were typical for every adult group in our society. The point we wish to make here is that post-war educational planning which only includes the small percentage of our people represented by the professions and the leaders in trades and industries is not sufficient. The other ninety-five per cent of our people are engaged in such work as farming (small home-owners and tenant farmers), plumbing, house painting, auto repairing, cosmetology, clerking, and the many other kinds of em-

ployment so necessary to our social and economic life. To the present time educational planning has given very little attention to this class of our society, which comprises approximately ninety-five per cent of the adult population.

We do not mean to infer that our educational program as it has been operating has failed to render a great service to society and to the State. We do not mean to infer that we should give any less attention to so-called academic learning. Higher education should continue to give highly specialized training to our leaders of professional, political, and industrial occupations. The point we wish to make is that wise educational planning will go farther and provide the type of educational training prerequisite to useful citizenship for the great masses of our population who will enter employment before reaching the college level. While the student is enrolled in the public school, it is the duty of the public school to start him on the way to useful citizenship. We must broaden our educational program with the full realization that all of our students will not go to college, and so give the great majority some vocational training while in the public schools. With this vocational training must be given training in health, the fundamental principles of democratic government, and the appreciations for wholesome attitudes toward life in the Southern States.

Some Changes in Student Beliefs Concerning the Aims, Nature, Support, and Control of Education During a Year of Professional Courses

BY LYNN L. RALYA, PH.D.¹

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This study of changes in student beliefs concerning the aims, nature, control, and support of education was carried out in the conviction that pre-testing and subsequent testing of the more specific elements of learning acquired by prospective teachers, particularly professionally significant beliefs, might provide data which could serve to improve teacher education. Such data could be used to guide those shifts in emphasis with reference to the normal content of courses in education which should tend to promote, through the utilization of educationally sound methods, desired changes in beliefs. It is, of course, realized that lack of either professional competence or professional integrity might lead to abuses in the gathering and utilization of such data—and doubtless would in a few cases. However, it is believed that the benefits to be gained by such a program would greatly outweigh such evils—at least under existing conditions of freedom of expression.

The Subjects

The subjects who provided the data for this report numbered 129 and were mostly junior and senior members of five successive years of classes in education at a state college of moderate size for men located in the Southeast. The college was one in which the entering freshmen were representative in scholastic aptitude, according to results obtained on American Council Psychological Examinations, of those entering a number of colleges and universities in the region. No claim is made that these freshmen were representative in whatever other attributes condition intellectual growth in college; nor is it claimed that the subjects achieved a representative degree of intellectual development during their college years. Nevertheless, it can be stated that the subjects had survived the influences of such factors as caused all but about 45 per cent of entering freshmen to be eliminated before graduation.

The subjects were, it would seem, not unrepresentative in general college achievement of those who graduated from the college, for when their official

¹ The following students cooperated in the tabulation of the data upon which this study is based: R. N. Bass, J. F. Birkner, J. Connolly, A. D. Oliphant, E. W. Overman, C. O. Wetzell.

college achievement ranks in their separate graduating classes² were converted into percentile ranks and thrown into a single distribution, the median individual was one with a percentile rank of 52 and the middle 50 per cent of the subjects ranged in percentile rank from 25 to 71. They were not as good, however, as a smaller and overlapping group of subjects who, over the longer period of 7 years for which data are available, took three or more courses in education. A similar distribution of percentile ranks for 97 such subjects was made and the median individual was one with a percentile rank of 59, while the middle 50 per cent of the subjects ranged from a percentile rank of 30 to one of 83.

Courses Taken

The majors represented by the 129 subjects were distributed as follows: chemistry, 9; English, 19; history, 28; modern language, 1; mathematics, 3; physics, 12; political science, 21; pre-medical, 36. About one-third of the subjects had taken work previously in general psychology and about as many were taking at the time or would later take work in it. Only a fraction of the group had taken a course in sociology.

Most of the 129 subjects received their introduction to the professional field of education in a semester-course which surveyed current American education; the rest of them in a course which described the historical development of education from early times but with greatest emphasis being placed upon its evolution in this country. Nearly all subjects took, as the second course in the year's sequence, educational psychology. Some of the subjects took an additional course or two in education during the same year. All courses were three semester-hours in length.

The Test and Its Administration

The test used in the complete investigation consisted of 160 statements, and the forty-one of them considered appropriate to this particular study are incorporated in it. Sources of information useful in the formulation of the test items included (a) numerous texts in the field, (b) knowledge and conjectures concerning the beliefs of students acquired in the teaching of them, (c) the results of a preliminary investigation,³ and (d) the final or preliminary results of somewhat similar collaborative investigations.⁴ No claim is made that the selection of beliefs to be represented was highly ob-

² In the few cases in which graduating ranks were not available, the ranks prevailing at the end of the junior or at the beginning of the senior year were used.

³ Lynn L. Ralya, "Some Opinions of Educational Significance Held by Prospective Teachers," *South Carolina Education*, Vol. 20, No. 7 (April, 1939).

⁴ Lynn L. Ralya and Lillian L. Ralya, "Some Misconceptions in Science Held by Prospective Elementary Teachers," *Science Education*, Vol. 22, No. 5 (October, 1938); "Some Concepts and Beliefs Significant to the Social Sciences of Entering Freshmen and the Relation of These to Scholastic Aptitude," *Social Forces*, Vol. 20, No. 3 (March, 1942).

jective or lacking in arbitrariness; nor is there any lack of realization that the coverage of some of the areas of belief and the formulation of some of the test statements might have been improved.

The test was, of course, given to the subjects at the very beginning of their first course in education and again at the very end of their first year of courses. In both administrations of the test, a studied attempt was made to secure careful consideration of the test items and intellectually honest reactions to them. With these ends in view, the subjects were (a) told briefly of the value of such investigations, (b) assured that the project would not count in any way whatsoever as a means of evaluating them as individuals, (c) assured of, and given, all the time which they found necessary to complete the project, (d) urged to respond in accordance with their real beliefs, and (e) allowed the three choices in responding of "believe," "disbelieve," and "uncertain," instead of the usual two of "believe" and "disbelieve." Furthermore, the precaution was even taken of labeling and calling the test an "Education Inventory" in the hope of avoiding whatever unfavorable reactions toward the project that the label "test" might bring about.

Treatment of Data

Each of the forty-one statements of the study was judged to represent a desired or an undesired belief in accordance with the interpretation which it was assumed that the subjects would place upon it and in accordance with what was thought to be the consensus of authoritative opinion and condition of existing knowledge in the field—except in the few cases where this was eventually found impossible. In such cases the reason why a decision could not be reached is given in a footnote. A key representing the writer's verdicts concerning the desirability or undesirability of beliefs accompanies the statements in a table which follows. The percentage of subjects considered successful because they indicated either belief or disbelief was computed for each statement. This was done, of course, for both the beginning and the end of the year of professional work. Those who indicated uncertainty were not included among those considered successful since this allowed a simpler presentation of the data.

Comments Upon Results

It is, of course, impossible to determine to just what extent the courses in education did actually function, or should have functioned, in promoting the desired and preventing the undesired changes in belief. These courses were but one of the types of influences playing upon the subjects, although one which presumably was more systematic, concentrated, and prolonged in its presentation of facts, concepts, and beliefs concerning education than any other. It can also be stated that on the average the subjects carried a somewhat larger number of courses and spent a larger number of hours in

the classroom and laboratory and on the field than is typical. Nor should it be overlooked that the beliefs represented in this study were but a small fraction of the total intellectual content of the education courses and that undue stress was not placed upon them in teaching. Furthermore, the bringing about of actual changes in belief is probably more difficult than securing understanding to about the extent that the opposition of intellectual habits and associated affective elements is encountered.

Statements 1 through 9 refer especially to the aims of education. It is worthy of comment that a large proportion of the group of 129 subjects were successful, even at the time of beginning their first course in education, in rejecting statements of excessive claims for two traditionally more important aims of education (1, 2)⁵ and in accepting statements of the "group unity" and "desirable individuality" aims (3, 4). The group was much less successful, however, in rejecting a statement of the fallacious common assumption and dangerous doctrine that by means of philosophy we can arrive at absolute truth concerning what should be the aims of education, although there was some change in the desired direction during the year of professional courses (6). In this connection, the very high degree of failure by the group to accept the statement of an important thesis permeating the education courses—the thesis that the schools should be dedicated to the "perpetuation of whatever social order exists" should be noted (7). Nor should the very high degree of failure to reject a statement of the indefensible thesis that the schools should so educate individuals as to "provide for a new, better, and definite type of social order" be overlooked (8). It is, of course, impossible to state just what interpretations were put upon the last two statements by the subjects. Nevertheless, it is possible to assure any naïve and timid readers, if there be any such, that the results do not reflect any communistic influence in home or college environment.

The beliefs of prospective teachers concerning the extent to which the various traditional and newer aims of education are being, or could be, realized and their evaluation of the various possible plans of educational procedure are irrevocably conditioned by their beliefs concerning what we, for want of a better term, call "human nature." Items 10 through 16 are devoted to this topic. Over half of the subjects failed, at the beginning of the period, to reject the statements: (a) "Human behavior is best studied by considering numerous inherited instincts"; (b) "Human nature cannot be changed since it is based on instincts"; (c) "Man instinctively knows the difference between good and evil"; and (d) "The conscience is part of man's native equipment at birth" (10, 11, 12, 13). There was a substantial improvement in the subjects' reactions to the four items by the end of the year, but not an amount considered satisfactory in view of the significance

⁵ Numbers in parentheses are item or statement numbers in table.

of such beliefs. In the light of the preceding results, it is not surprising that about 40 per cent of the subjects accepted statements representing rather extreme "hereditarian" dogmas bearing upon the so-called "heredity versus environment" issue, or that there should have been little change in their reactions during the period (14, 15). Nor is it surprising that subjects were rather successful in rejecting statement of the opposite "Watsonian" dogma (16).

The group was highly successful on two items representing beliefs essential to our modern democratic philosophy of education; at the end of the year 95 per cent of them acknowledged the existence of individual differences in intelligence among those of normal intelligence, and the same number accepted a statement of the principle of adapting education to different levels of ability (17, 18). However, there was rather extensive failure on two items which represent applications of the principles represented by the two items, since, at the end of the period only about one-third of the subjects successfully rejected the statement that psychologists can, with the aid of tests, "determine rather exactly what specific vocation a high school boy will succeed in," and about half of the subjects failed to reject a statement of the "deterministic" doctrine that the education of the masses should be industrial (20, 21). There was considerable improvement on the former item and a numerical loss on the latter item. In addition, at the end of the period, over one-third of the subjects failed to disclaim belief in a much earlier and more rigorous selection of high school students for college preparation than is warranted by current democratic ideals, while one-fourth of the subjects failed to reject the statement that the high school should set higher standards and pass fewer pupils, and, strangely enough, only 12 per cent of the subjects indicated that they knew that the average pupil in high school today is of lower "native" ability than the average pupil of 25 years ago (22, 23, 24).

There are several items which are hard to classify but which represent important beliefs about the nature of education. Attention is next called to the results on some of them. The group was very successful in giving evidence of its recognition of the importance of the education of the "emotions" and in its rejection of a traditional belief concerning the nature of a liberal education (25, 26). However, they were rather unsuccessful in their reaction to a statement of the former liberal doctrine that the best education is free from all indoctrination—a doctrine no longer tenable now that "pure reasoning" is known to be a myth and the traditional doctrine of "mental discipline" has been greatly deflated (28). Nearly all of the subjects apparently realized that interest plays a great part in learning; however, over half of them failed to reject an extreme statement of the "doctrine of interest"—even at the end of the period (29, 30). About half of the subjects appar-

ently failed to realize at the end of the year that all learning involves inhibition, although there was considerable improvement during the period (31).

Items 33 through 37 represent beliefs concerning the financial support of education, and some of the results are, largely in superficial appearance, contradictory. There was a substantial increase during the year in the number of subjects subscribing to a statement of the principle of Federal aid and some increase in the number subscribing to statements of the principle of "need" in connection with the distribution of Federal and state financial aid (34, 35, 37), and the success reached a fairly high level. An apparent discrepancy lies in the fact that some who subscribed to the principle of "need" as stated also subscribed to statement of the "number of children principle" (33, 36). However, the two principles do overlap, since the financially poorer states and localities often have the larger child-to-adult ratio, and some of the subjects doubtlessly assumed both principles to amount to the same thing.

Items 38 through 41 are statements of beliefs concerning the control of education. It is decidedly gratifying to note that the number subscribing to a statement of the principle of joint control was rather large at the beginning of the period and very large at the end of it (41). It is evident from the data that some who subscribed to the statement that the control of education should be "largely in the hands of" one agency, subscribed to a similar statement with reference to another agency. These apparent discrepancies would seem to be largely based upon such subjects' interpretation of the word "largely" and upon their assumption that governmental control would incorporate some degree of "professional control" since some of the governmental officials concerned would doubtlessly be professionally educated individuals.

Summary and Conclusions

The extent to which certain beliefs of professional significance concerning the aims, nature, support, and control of education were held by a group of 129 students at the beginning and at the end of their first year of courses in education has been determined in a manner not wholly subjective. The results with reference to some of the more important beliefs have been given specific consideration. Some successes and some failures of the group have been noted. The change in beliefs during the year was generally in the right direction—although a study of the table will reveal changes in the undesired direction with reference to a number of beliefs. Relatively little attention has been devoted to a consideration of the various factors which might have been responsible for both the satisfactory and the unsatisfactory results. Nevertheless, it is thought that the results may have some suggestive value to those engaged in the education of teachers for our modern, democratic school system.

TABLE I

Statements and Number of Subjects Successful on Each at Beginning and at End of Year

NOTE: The letter *B* in key (or other) column indicates "believed"; the letter *D* in key (or other) column indicates "disbelieved"; the letter *X* in key column indicates a special difficulty in interpreting the results for reason given in foot-note.

No.	Statement	Key	Per Cent of Subjects Successful	
			Before	After
1	The chief aim of public education is to produce scholars	D	96	97
2	By far the most important aim of high school education should be college preparation	D	76	84
3	One of the main purposes of education is to promote group unity	B	72	86
4	One of the main purposes of education is to promote desirable individuality	B	80	85
5	The development of such general mental powers as reasoning is a much more important aim than the knowledge aim—for college education	X ¹	12D	8D
6	By means of philosophy we can arrive at absolute truth concerning what should be the aims of education	D	44	65
7	The schools should be dedicated to the perpetuation of whatever social order exists	B	19	28
8	The schools should so educate individuals as to provide for a new, better, and definite type of social order	D	22	13
9	The aims of American education are identical with those of European education	D	63	89
10	Human behavior is best studied by considering numerous inherited instincts	D	28	36
11	Human nature cannot be changed since it is based on instincts	D	42	56
12	Man instinctively knows the difference between good and evil	D	47	66

¹ Since the development of such general mental powers as reasoning is so irrevocably and complexly connected with the acquisition of knowledge it is, of course, impossible to tell which aim is the more important one. However, the acceptance by many of the statement is doubtlessly based upon their assumption of the discredited doctrine of formal "mental discipline."

No.	Statement	Per Cent of Subjects Successful		
		Key	Before	After
13	The conscience is part of man's native equipment at birth	D	48	58
14	Heredity is of much greater importance in determining the individual mental and emotional characteristics than the environment	D	61	63
15	Only the weak are held back by their environment	D	63	65
16	Any child, if carefully trained from birth, could be made a successful doctor, lawyer, engineer, or journalist	D	82	80
17	People of normal intelligence vary among themselves in intelligence	B	94	95
18	Education should be adapted to different levels of ability	B	90	95
19	Each student should be given work at which he can succeed	B	71	79
20	Psychologists can, with the aid of tests, determine rather exactly in what specific vocation a high school boy will succeed	D	24	33
21	Education for the masses should be industrial	D	52	49
22	At the beginning of the high school period all pupils should be tested and only those meeting very high standards should be allowed to prepare for college	D	68	60
23	The high school should set higher standards and pass fewer pupils	D	57	75
24	The average pupil in the high school today is of lower native (inborn) ability than the average pupil of 25 years ago	B	6	12
25	It is just as important to educate people emotionally as intellectually	B	79	88
26	To have had a liberal education one must have studied Latin	D	87	91
27	Latin is sometimes a vocational subject	B	49	68
28	The best education is free from all indoctrination	D	35	48
29	Interest is a powerful factor in learning	B	97	96
30	All important educational objectives can be achieved by utilizing the natural, inborn, interests of children	D	41	45

No.	Statement	Per Cent of Subjects Successful		
		Key	Before	After
31	All learning involves inhibition	B	20	48
32	Thinking is dependent upon sensory experience	B	37	50
33	Any state money provided for the support of education should be distributed in accordance with the number of children in the different communities	X ²	43D	51D
34	Any state money provided for the support of education should be distributed in accordance with the financial needs of the different communities	B	80	88
35	The Federal government should contribute much more than it does to the support of education	B	54	72
36	Any Federal money provided for the support of education should be distributed on the basis of the number of children in each state	X ³	48D	50D
37	Any Federal money provided for the support of education should be distributed in accordance with the financial needs of the different states	B	80	83
38	The control of our educational system should be largely in the hands of the state governments	D	56	70
39	The control of our educational system should be largely in the hands of the Federal government	D	79	75
40	The control of our educational system should be largely in the hands of the educational profession	D	58	66
41	The control of our educational system should be shared by the Federal government, the state and local governments, and the educational profession	B	77	92

² Not considered the best way—but represents a step forward for some states.

³ Not considered the best method—although one favoring the region to a degree because of the relatively large ratio of children to adults in the population.

Proceedings of the Curriculum Conference on Post-War Education

JULY 26-27, 1944

George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tennessee

Conference Theme

The purpose of the Conference is to help school people to plan the role of education after the war. Never in the history of the nation have so many planning groups been charting the course of human welfare after victory.

After the war we shall be confronted by new conditions and new problems, but we shall also have greater resources, better ways of working together, and a more hopeful outlook with which to meet the situation. In the process of building a better world, the school will work side by side with other social groups.

I. General Meeting

Living After The War

Wednesday, July 26, 9:30-12:00 A.M.

What changes in living may we expect after the war? What improvements may we anticipate in rural life, health, consumption, industry, employment, international relations, government, home life, transportation, communication, human relations, conservation, etc.? Which of the many hopes for a better world will be realized?

CHAIRMAN

J. J. Oppenheimer, Dean of the College of Liberal Arts, University of Louisville, Louisville, Kentucky

SPEAKERS

Gordon W. Blackwell, Director, Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, North Carolina

David A. Lockmiller, President, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee

DISCUSSION

II. Discussion Groups

Wednesday, July 26, 2:30-4:30 P.M.

I. RURAL LIFE AFTER THE WAR

This session is conducted jointly with the Southern Rural Life Council.

Will rural electrification be extended more rapidly? To what extent will farming be mechanized in our region? Will the farmer produce a balanced food supply for home

use? What are the prospects for an adequate supply of farm labor? Will there be a new industrial demand for the products of field and forest? Can the farmer look forward to a higher level of living?

CHAIRMAN

John E. Brewton, Dean of Graduate School, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADER

Daniel Russell, Head of Department of Rural Sociology, Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station, Texas

PANEL

Otis C. Amis, Professor of Education, Union College, Barbourville, Kentucky

C. E. Brehm, Dean of College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee

Dora B. Haines, Rural Electrification Administration, Washington Office, Washington, D. C.

John E. Ivy, Specialist in Education Evaluation, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee

Vera Jones, Associate Professor of Education, Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Oklahoma

Inez Allan Kincaid, Home Demonstration Agent, Osceola, Arkansas

Richard Milk, Scarritt College, Rural Center, Crossville, Tennessee

Marvin S. Pittman, President, Georgia Teachers College, Collegeboro, Georgia

2. HEALTH AND MEDICAL SERVICES AFTER THE WAR

How will the organization of health and medical services be changed after the war? How will medical services for all the people be financed? How may adequate health and medical services be extended to rural areas? What improvements will be made in the control of communicable diseases? What steps will be taken toward the prevention of illness? What improvements in health education will be made? How will the school and the local health department coordinate their efforts?

CHAIRMAN

W. Morrison McCall, Director, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Montgomery, Alabama

DISCUSSION LEADER

Dorothy Nyswander, Health Education Specialist, Division of Education, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Commerce Department Building, Washington 25, D. C.

PANEL

Sarah Abernathy, Executive Secretary of the Tennessee State Nutrition Committee, 411 State Office Building, Nashville, Tennessee

D. V. Galloway, Mississippi State Health Department, Jackson, Mississippi

A. M. Lyon, Director of Hospitals, Welfare Department, Frankfort, Kentucky

William D. Robinson, Specialist in Nutrition, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee

Rebecca Timbres Clark, Acting Dean and Director of Nursing Education, Meharry Medical College, Nashville, Tennessee

Edward L. Turner, President, Meharry Medical College, Nashville, Tennessee

Katherine Vickery, Alabama College, Montevallo, Alabama

3. INDUSTRY AND THE CONSUMER AFTER THE WAR

Will the level of living continue to rise? What new consumer goods will appear on the market: new processed foods, plastic household equipment, synthetic fabrics, lightweight automobiles, etc.? How will the accumulated housing needs be met? What changes in consumer services may we expect? How will the pent-up savings be released? What new legislation may we expect for the protection of the consumer? As a nation, will we become less wasteful in the use of goods? Will advertising become more informative? Will labor-saving devices be produced at prices within the income of the mass of the people? What is the future of consumer education?

CHAIRMAN

J. R. Whitaker, Professor of Geography, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADER

James E. Mendenhall, Educational Services Branch, Office of Price Administration, Washington, D. C.

PANEL

Roscoe Arant, Regional Business Consultant, U. S. Department of Commerce, Atlanta, Georgia

Ruth Vick Everett, District Information Executive, P. O. Box 2718, Office of Price Administration, Raleigh, North Carolina

Betty MacDonald Miller, Director, Community Planning, Better Living, Inc., 161 Spring Street, Atlanta, Georgia

4. EMPLOYMENT AFTER THE WAR

What are the prospects of reasonably full employment after the war? What measures will be taken to care for the unemployed? What are the prospects for the employment of youth? How will the returned servicemen be reabsorbed into the ranks of the em-

ployed workers? Will the proportion of employed women be greater than it was before the war? Will the demand for skilled workers in our region tend to increase over a period of years? What new opportunities for employment will develop? Will we be confronted by a period of unemployment during the period of reconversion?

CHAIRMAN

H. C. Brearley, Professor of Educational Sociology, Peabody College, Nashville, Tenn.

DISCUSSION LEADER

Ernest J. Eberling, Professor of Economics, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee

PANEL

James E. Anderson, Jr., Employment Manager, Reynolds Alloys Company, Sheffield, Alabama

W. A. Bass, Superintendent of Schools, Nashville, Tennessee

George F. Gant, Director of Personnel, Tennessee Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tennessee

Maxey Jarman, President, General Shoe Corporation, Nashville, Tennessee

Paul Jessen, United States Employment Service, Cotton States Building, Nashville, Tennessee

Lloyd L. Jones, Director of Research, Gregg Publishing Company, 270 Madison Avenue, New York, New York

Dennis H. Price, Assistant Professor Trade and Industry, Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana

Donald F. Steinbaugh, Personnel Director, Allen Manufacturing Company, Tenth Avenue, North, Nashville, Tennessee

III. General Meeting

Schools after the War

Thursday, July 27, 9:30-12: A.M.

What changes in education will be made to meet the new conditions of living after the war? What will be the role of the school in building a better world? How will the school share the responsibility for raising the level of living in rural areas? Can we look forward to a more liberally supported program of rural education? What kind of curriculum shall we build for the post-war era? How shall we finance an adequate program of public education? How will education meet the needs of youth after the war?

CHAIRMAN

L. G. Derthick, Superintendent of Schools, Chattanooga, Tennessee

SPEAKERS

- E. William Doty, Dean of the School of Fine Arts, University of Texas,
Austin, Texas
W. A. Sutton, Executive Secretary, Georgia Educational Association,
Atlanta, Georgia

DISCUSSION

IV. Discussion Groups

Thursday, July 27, 2:30-4:30 P.M.

5. RURAL EDUCATION AFTER THE WAR

This session is conducted jointly with the Southern Rural Life Council.

What changes in rural education may we expect after the war? Will there be an adequate supply of well-trained teachers? What are the prospects of better salaries for rural teachers? What steps will be taken to provide a richer and more diversified curriculum in the rural high school? Will adequate supervision be provided in rural areas? What direction will the consolidation of rural schools take? Will the in-service training programs for rural teachers be extended? Will the rural school assume some responsibility for the improvement of rural life? What role will the teachers college play in the betterment of rural education?

CHAIRMAN

J. J. Ray, Director of Training, General Shoe Corporation, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADER

Maurice Seay, Director, Bureau of School Service, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Kentucky

PANEL

Daintry Graham Allison, Chairman, Rural Education Department,
North Carolina Education Association, Fairview, North Carolina
Johnnye Cox, Supervisor of Pulaski County Schools, Hawkinsville, Georgia

D. Harley Fite, Dean, Austin Peay Normal, Clarksville, Tennessee

W. M. Kethley, President, Delta State Teachers College, Cleveland,
Mississippi

Ralph M. Lyon, Captain, Infantry, Educational Reconditioning Officer,
Nichols General Hospital, Louisville 2, Kentucky

Hattie Parrott, Division of Instructional Service, Department of Public
Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina.

Elmer Petree, Assistant State Superintendent, State of Oklahoma, Department of Public Instruction, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Sue M. Powers, Superintendent, Shelby County Department of Education, Memphis, Tennessee

L. O. Todd, President, East Central Junior College, Decatur, Mississippi

6. CURRICULAR CHANGES AFTER THE WAR

What changes may we expect in the elementary curriculum, in the secondary curriculum, in the college curriculum? Which new courses ushered in by the war will be continued? Which will be discontinued? What developments in vocational education may we expect? Will current public criticism affect the trend in curriculum after the war? Will some form of compulsory national service for youth be introduced? What adjustments in the curriculum will be made to meet new conditions of living and a new world outlook?

CHAIRMAN

Norman Frost, Professor of Rural Education, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADER

W. T. Edwards, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

PANEL

I. N. Carr, Major, Chief, Pre-Induction Training Branch, Schools Division, Army Service Forces, Atlanta 3, Georgia

Edgar Fuller, Principal Educationist, Aviation Education Service, Civil Aeronautics Administration, Washington, D. C.

F. C. Grise, Dean, Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green, Kentucky

W. C. Jones, Dean, Eastern Kentucky State Teachers College, Richmond, Kentucky

Jerome Kuderna, Professor of Education, Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Alabama

H. L. Smith, Superintendent of City Schools, Paducah, Kentucky

D. G. Stout, Professor of Social Science, East Tennessee State College, Johnson City, Tennessee

Roy Tompkins, Director of Extension and Correspondence Study, Oklahoma A. and M. College, Stillwater, Oklahoma

Winnie V. Turner, Elementary Supervisor, Blytheville, Arkansas

7. LIBRARY SERVICES AFTER THE WAR

What are the prospects of providing library services to the many communities that do not have them? Will library services be expanded to include films, recordings, and other new instructional materials? What changes in the reading interests of the people may be expected? What changes in community life will affect the library's collection? What forms of cooperation should be developed among all kinds of libraries?

CHAIRMAN

Edward A. Wright, Professor of Library Education, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADERS

Postwar College Library Service: A. F. Kuhlman, Director of Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tennessee

Post-war School Library Service: Sue Hefley, State Supervisor of Libraries, State Department of Education, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

PANEL

F. K. W. Drury, Librarian, Nashville Public Library, Nashville, Tennessee
G. E. Govan, Librarian, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee

W. K. McCharen, Librarian, Middle Tennessee State College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee

Martha Parks, Director, Division of School Libraries, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee

Ora Peters, Librarian, Concord Demonstration School, Athens, West Virginia

8. FINANCING EDUCATION AFTER THE WAR

This session is conducted jointly with the Department of Educational Administration. May we expect federal aid to equalize educational opportunities among the states? What kind of taxes should be levied for public education after the war? What goals for teachers' salaries in our region shall we set? What per cent of the national income may we reasonably demand for public education? What will it cost the people of our region to maintain an adequate program of public education? To what extent may we expect the proportions of local, state, and federal support of schools to change? What type of state equalization program will be commonly accepted?

CHAIRMAN

Dennis H. Cooke, Professor of School Administration, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSION LEADER

Edgar L. Morphet, Director of Administration and Finance, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

PANEL

L. Frazer Banks, Superintendent of Schools, Birmingham, Alabama

W. W. Hill, Assistant Superintendent, County Board of Education, Birmingham, Alabama

C. A. McCanless, Director of School Finance and Business Administration, Tennessee State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee

C. E. Myers, Supervisor of Research, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia

Paul A. Reid, Executive Secretary, State School Commission, Raleigh, North Carolina

Living After the War

BY GORDON W. BLACKWELL

Institute for Research in Social Science, University of North Carolina

I am appreciative of the honor of participating in this annual mid-summer educational conference at this regional center of learning in the valley of the Cumberland. I bring you greetings from another regional center of education in your sister Tar Heel state. The planned growth of such centers of research and training in the Southland already promises much for the future of the region.

It was indeed temerity on my part to accept this assignment, and I approach it with due humility. We are all thinking much about "living after the war," but in these days it is the wise social scientist who avoids prophecy, certainly the forecasting of events in the immediate future. Social scientists seem to find less danger in long-range prophecy for the far future. Along with this decreased danger to their prestige possibly goes also decreased social utility of their theories. What we can do, however, using the accumulated insights of the social sciences, is to make a diagnosis of the past and present, and in doing this, whether we intend it or not, we will be dealing with post-war matters. This is because conditions in the post-war period will not represent a clear break with the present and the past. As we work to win the war, we are creating—in part at least—a framework for after-war living. Carl Becker has recently asked the question, "How new will the better world be?" and his realistic answers forcefully indicate the importance of historical trends.¹

I am sure most of us take with a "grain of salt" the post-war utopia pictured so vividly by commercial advertisers. Neither should we take the gloomy view of some fatalists who see nothing ahead but chaos and disintegration. We can, however, perhaps agree with Mr. Geoffrey Vickers, that well-known English educator, that "The movement following . . . a successful war is always a psychological trough, without vision or energy."² It would appear that this was certainly true after the last war. It is imperative, therefore, that attention be given to the direction we are taking and that social control techniques be applied in whatever ways possible to guide the course of social change.

It is but the part of prudence to begin by placing rather strict limitations upon my treatment of this subject. It is now obvious to all thinking people that henceforth we are living in "One World." Already the outlines of a

¹ Carl Becker, *How New Will the Better World Be?*, Alfred A. Knopf, N. Y., 1944.

² "Education for a Free Society," *Christian News-Letter*, Jan. 31, 1940, an English publication; quoted in H. C. Dent, *Education in Transition*, Oxford University Press, N. Y., 1944, p. 173.

development of world regions can be detected. Internationalism seems to be in the cards. Or, to change the metaphor, as the "pawns are moved about at the peace table," our own future and that of our children may be decided in large measure.

Recognizing the importance of an international viewpoint in this contracting world, I yet make no apologies for limiting my discussion to domestic matters and this in the theoretical framework of regionalism. This is not an indication of provincialism. Exponents of regionalism in increasing numbers have given the lie to those who maintained that regionalism is nothing more than a revival of selfish sectionalism, clothed perhaps with new jargons of social science. It is the basic premise of regionalism that the paramount objective shall always be the national welfare developed through a recognition and fostering of the diversities of a great nation.

Neither should it be assumed that regionalism connotes a muckraking of the South. I am reminded of the story of a gentleman in evening clothes, who, while walking through a cemetery one dark evening, fell into a freshly dug grave. Being unable to climb out, he shouted in vain for help. As it began to rain, he got muddier and muddier in his efforts to pull himself out. Finally his shouts attracted the attention of a thoroughly inebriated fellow who, when he saw the predicament of the gentleman, tossed it off lightly by saying, "The trouble with you, my friend, is that you haven't got enough dirt on you." We in the South need no more dirt thrown on us! Rather our orientation should be that of Howard W. Odum, as he is wont to consider "the South at its best" in terms of its great potentialities, starting, of course, from where we are at present. We must so utilize our human resources that there may be optimum development of the natural resources. This will result in development of technological and capital wealth. The region will then have the means for the adequate support of its institutional resources—schools, churches, government, welfare, recreation, and so on.³

Now, having pulled in my intellectual horns, so to speak, to cover only a few issues in the domestic scene from a regional point of view, I shall set about my task. Just what I think the particularly pressing domestic issues are, will become apparent in the course of my remarks.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES CHALLENGED

The seemingly boundless resources of a great continent and the hardy energy of a frontier people presented a challenge to the natural sciences as this country developed. The natural sciences responded with the development of amazing super-technology. This was apparent in all fields of science, especially in the technical processes of mass production. The results

³ Howard W. Odum, *Southern Regions of the United States*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill, 1936, pp. 337-339; see also Rupert B. Vance, *All These People*, University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill (now in press), Chapter 32.

of this spawning of a giant technology reached a climax in the economic and social organization of the country in the late nineteen-twenties. The ensuing collapse with all its social disintegration and human suffering is still fresh in our minds.

This social phenomenon, almost unprecedented in its extensity and intensity, presented a challenge to the social sciences, particularly political science, economics, and sociology. The effectiveness with which the social sciences handled this responsibility during the nineteen-thirties was both encouraging and discouraging—encouraging in the daring imagination of some of the political, economic and social techniques which were evolved; discouraging in that the failures to meet adequately the many problems were perhaps as numerous as the successes, and many of the social scientists and administrators seemed to lose touch with the people. At any rate, some progress was made in applied social science during the depression years and much was learned.

And then came the present war with its challenge again to the natural sciences to develop techniques of even greater mass production, to work out unprecedented problems of transportation, and to devise new methods and implements of warfare adequate to carry us to victory over a stubborn foe, perhaps equally well versed in scientific research and application as are we. The amazing accomplishments of the natural scientists in the winning of this war are already becoming evident on every hand. The full story will not be known until the history is written of the Office of Scientific Research and Development, which has coordinated the work of natural scientists in the war effort.

War conditions have likewise challenged the social sciences in terms of political, economic, and social controls. With the clear-cut and easily understood goal of winning the war in the shortest possible time, the nation submitted to controls undreamed of by most of us before. By and large, ruinous inflation has been avoided, war production goals have been approached if not exceeded, and the home-front effort has been running in high gear for some time. Perhaps because of its great complexity, perhaps due to the human factors involved, a somewhat poorer job may have been done in the utilization of manpower. We have also given too little heed to the particular needs of young people in war-time—in spite of much talk about juvenile delinquency—and we have sometimes done rather poorly in organizing war-impact communities to withstand the shock of soaring population, inadequate housing, poor recreational facilities, and all the rest.

As we look to the post-war period the challenge to the social sciences appears in even greater range and import. We know how to extract minerals from the ground and fashion them into thousands of useful articles, how to surpass agricultural production records, how to use the forests in hundreds of new ways, how to produce labor-saving devices of all kinds, how to har-

ness the energy of great river systems, and so on *ad infinitum*. What we are not so sure about is how to return six to eight million men to gainful employment. (Parenthetically, I might say that I am assuming quite a sizable standing military force for sometime to come.) We do not have all the answers as to how to prevent wasteful exploitation of our resources, provide social security for all without curtailing initiative and enterprise, how to work out amicable and just arrangements between management and labor, or how racial minority groups can be enabled to participate effectively in democracy.

Out of these three distinct challenges to the social sciences—the Great Depression, the present war period, and prospective post-war adjustments—have come many new forms of societal control. To all thinking persons it must be clear that we have entered an era not of a “planned society” but of a “continuously planning society” as John Dewey has so aptly phrased it.⁴ For fully 75 years a piecemeal retreat has been underway from a social system in which social and economic processes were assumed to operate naturally for the best interests of the public welfare. The unseen hand, beloved of Adam Smith, is becoming more and more nebulous. No longer is the naïve assumption made that the several institutional areas—economic, social, political—function separately. Societies in the western world are rapidly coming to be reorganized around direct, more or less centralized, overall planning.

Such a change calls for a deliberate about-face from many of our most cherished cultural symbols and slogans. Ordinarily such a sweeping institutional revolution would require many decades in the orderly processed of social change. Brought on by the Great Depression and extending into almost all phases of the life of the nation during the press-of-war necessity, this movement toward planning takes on more than transitory significance. Professor Lynd puts it this way:

“But with national planning up over the cultural horizon in permanent and manifestly effective operation in *some* nations, there is no longer any option as to whether to plan or not to plan in any industrial nation . . . National progress by the old set of indirections is from here on out obsolete. This is so for the simple reason that, in the tightening grooves of world competition and the necessity internally to secure approximately full employment, no nation that lives by giant technology can afford to forego the adoption of any device that diminishes the present colossal frustration of technology and has proved its ability both to stabilize and to enhance the wealth of the nation.”⁵

⁴ Joseph Ratner (Ed.), *Intelligence in the Modern World: John Dewey's Philosophy*, The Modern Library, Random House, N. Y., 1939, p. 431.

⁵ Robert S. Lynd, “The Implications of Economic Planning for Sociology,” *American Sociological Review*, IX (Feb., 1944) pp. 15-16.

David Lilienthal in his recent fascinating book, *T. V. A.: Democracy on the March*, contends for planning apart from our competition with other nations. To him the optimum regional development of resources rests upon overall planning. ". . . everywhere what happens to the land, the forests, and the water determines what happens to the people."⁶ And again, ". . . in any perspective of time, unified resource development anywhere helps everyone everywhere."⁷ The important words there are *unified resource development*. It is held that the unity of nature provides certain principles of resource utilization which must be followed by an intelligent society. It is Lilienthal's opinion that individual industries, even if they would, cannot have enough facts on which to make wise decisions relative to resource utilization for the public welfare. It must, therefore, be a responsibility of decentralized government.

But it is not my purpose here to argue the case for societal planning under public auspices. I am accepting it as a basic factor in our society as we enter the post-war period.

Now it must be clear to all that the economic, social, and political techniques of planning have been efficient in the fascist and communist dictatorships. The challenge to the social sciences is to demonstrate that the procedures of large scale, unified planning are not necessarily incompatible with the functioning of a social democracy of the people. Social and economic planning as a function of government is here to stay for sometime, but the lines are already being drawn in this country in the struggle between fascism and social democracy. The smoky interior of every Pullman club-car, and, more distressing, the tobacco stained steps of many a county courthouse echo with such shibboleths as "free American enterprise" and "keep America the same for the boys when they come home." Perhaps history will reveal the true significance of the fight last week to oust Henry Wallace! Yes, the lines are already being drawn.

The challenge is, then, to integrate planning into a social organization in which democratic principles constitute the central values. It is my opinion that the experience of the Tennessee Valley Authority points the way. In the first place, planning and administration have been decentralized from the national to the regional level, with the national welfare always a basic consideration in any decision. The regional scope of T. V. A. and the policy of allocating authority and responsibility to its men in the field represent steps away from bureaucracy and dictatorship. But the agency has gone further toward social democracy than this. Lilienthal has succinctly summed it up: ". . . the people must be in on the planning; their existing institutions must be made part of it; self-education of the citizenry is more important than specific projects or physical changes."⁸ Only when the

⁶ David Lilienthal, *T. V. A.: Democracy on the March*, Harper and Bros., N. Y., 1942, p. 2.

⁷ *Ibid.*, p. 207.

⁸ *Ibid.*, p. 198.

people retain freedom of choice of ends can there be planning in a social democracy. After reading Mr. Lilienthal's book, the honest critic, worried about the use of federal funds for a program affecting a single river valley, will hesitate to quip: "The T. V. A. touches seven states and drains forty-eight." Not only for what it has done in guiding the development of a great river valley, but also as an experiment in regional planning, the T. V.A. merits close attention.

Because of the significance of the states as political units in American culture, much of our planning must be accomplished at that level. This is partly because many of the agencies through which planning must be implemented operate on a state basis. Decentralizing some of the functions of planning still further, we find that groups of counties, individual counties, communities, and neighborhoods within communities can all share in the planning process. The division of planning responsibilities between these several levels of administration must vary with each field, such as social security, resource utilization, agricultural production, public works, library services, education, and so on. The problem of relationships between the planning at these several levels of government—from the United States capitol-dome to the cross-roads-centered rural community—has been giving the Bureau of the Budget of the federal government genuine concern. The foundation-financed Council on Inter-governmental Relations is exploring the matter intensively in selected areas. A sound generalization seems to be that there should be as much grass roots participation in planning processes as is consistent with the national welfare. Walt Whitman put it this way: "... nothing is good to me now that ignores individuals."

The importance of decentralization is perhaps even more easily seen in planning of a non-material nature. Two of the toughest nuts to crack in our struggle for a social democracy of the people are labor relations and race relations. Both of these problems have been intensified by the war and will probably become more difficult in the inevitable adjustments involved in the shift from a predominantly war-time economy to one of peace in a war-shattered world. I am inclined to believe that recognition of regional diversities may lead us more directly to the only national goals in these two fields which are compatible with social democracy, namely, the right of labor to organize and bargain collectively with its employer and the right of individuals of every race to participate fully in all privileges guaranteed by the Constitution. In a region such as the South, which is perhaps a generation behind some other parts of the nation in respect to these issues, the national goals may not be attainable overnight. If they are sought immediately through federal legislative fiat, violence results, if not civil war. If the region is left entirely to itself on these issues, progress may not be easy to detect. Here then, is a planning job more difficult than directing the utilization of natural resources, though not necessarily dissociated from it, as T. V. A. experience has proved.

If we choose to move even further from the material aspects of planning, we must recognize that the values men live by will loom large in determining the nature of our after-war society. Values are largely group products and represent a key to group solidarity. According to Karl Mannheim: "It is now more than ever visible that without some fundamental agreement on values no peaceful order can survive."⁹ It is his opinion that the lack of realization of the importance of social consensus has been a tragedy of progressive thought during the last twenty-five years. Lilienthal points out the need for "a real faith." He says: "... the world badly needs conviction; it has had too much of a kind of impartiality that is inevitably irresponsible."¹⁰ Lynd holds that "a planned economy cannot be erected on a merely casually coherent social system and in a society of individuals so little interested in group goals as we Americans are today."¹¹ H. C. Dent, in his sociological analysis of English education just off the press, notes the importance of values: "... for it is beyond question that the direct need of man today is for a compulsive and overriding sense of spiritual purpose and direction."¹² Now these opinions which I have been citing are not from preachers or high school commencement speakers. They are from the most recent writings of social scientists, each in excellent repute in his profession. I believe they represent a growing body of thought in the social sciences. Sorokin has pointed out the dangers in a culture which over-emphasizes the material—"over-ripe sensate culture," he calls it.¹³

In this discussion of "living after the war," I have confined myself to what seems to me to be the basic trends which will be important in determining the nature of post-war society. I have talked only of several major issues, for it is the answers to these issues which will largely determine the nature of rural life after the war, what kind of health and medical services we shall have, the relationships which will maintain between industry and the consumer, the problem of full employment, and other specific aspects of living.

My own conviction, which, I hope, is based not entirely upon wishful thinking, is that we shall move forward toward unified planning within the framework of a social democracy of the people, utilizing the concept of regionalism for research, planning, and administration, and placing planning responsibilities at the local level whenever feasible. If this is accomplished it will be due in no small measure to the part which education can take and is taking in this movement. And the implications for education in the future are of utmost significance. Perhaps I may be indulged a brief comment on these points.

⁹ *Diagnosis of Our Time*, Oxford University Press, New York, 1944, p. vi.

¹⁰ David Lilienthal, *op. cit.*, p. xii.

¹¹ Robert S. Lynd, *op. cit.*, p. 17.

¹² H. C. Dent, *op. cit.*, p. 165.

¹³ P. A. Sorokin, *Social and Cultural Dynamics*, American Book Company, New York, 1937, Vol. I, Chapter 1.

EDUCATION IN THIS CHANGING SOCIETY

By the sociologist, education is viewed as a basic activity of society. It influences, and is influenced by, all the other human activities—political, religious, economic, industrial, social, personal. This intimate relationship between the educational system and the social order is being increasingly recognized. On the basis of the English experience of the last few years, Dent concludes:

“The educational system is not only an integral part of the social system; it is a main source of its strength or of its weakness. The development of a society cannot be but fundamentally affected—for good or for ill—by the education its members receive; on the other hand, the nature, and consequently the value, of that education is determined—at least in a democratic society—by the state of society and the attitude which society as a whole takes towards the whole problem of education.”¹⁴

Yet the educators who prate most about all this, under the guise of philosophy of education, often fail to recognize or understand the nature of the society we now have and must have in the post-war period. “Education for a democratic society.” Yes! But also education for a society of mass industrialization utilizing giant technology; education for a highly stratified society in which vertical mobility between social classes is not as free as we sometimes like to think; education for a society with minority group problems which are nearing the boiling point. The deductions of most educational philosophers concerning the relationship between education and society too rarely get beyond the stage of setting forth general principles applicable to any kind of democracy.

In the years ahead our young people must get an understanding of the economic and social complexities of modern society. They must understand the necessity of societal planning, not as a blueprint for the future, but rather as a continuous process which should constantly be evaluated and revised. They must be given opportunity to participate in planning both in school and community. They must learn and come to appreciate the principles of resource utilization which should underlie the development of any region. They must understand the scientific facts about race and come to consider race relations objectively. And, perhaps above all, they must develop a strong inner motivation toward the achievement of a social democracy of the people.

Besides studying how to follow democratic principles in school administration and in teaching, I venture to suggest in conclusion that educators have two additional professional responsibilities in giving reality to their

¹⁴ H. C. Dent, *op. cit.*, pp. ix, x.

slogan, "education for democracy." First, they must come to a scientific understanding of our society and what is probably ahead in the post-war years. This is a technical matter and requires a thorough foundation in the social sciences. There is no more serious threat to American education, it seems to me, than the apparent weaknesses in this sort of understanding on the part of many teachers and school administrators. In the second place, buttressed by a scientific understanding of our society, educators must fearlessly face up to the social and economic challenges of our time. They must have personal and professional conviction of the high responsibility which is education's today and tomorrow. Perhaps then the poet's hope will become reality:

" a loftier race
 Than ere the world has know shall rise,
 With flame of freedom in their souls,
 And light of knowledge in their eyes."

Living After the War

BY DAVID A. LOCKMILLER

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I am sure you will readily agree that almost anything I may say this morning will relate to the broad subject "Living After the War." I am equally certain that you do not expect the speakers or those in attendance upon this Conference to exhaust a theme unlimited as to time or space. All we can do therefore, is to start with certain basic assumptions, call upon history for guidance, and, subject to error and chance, predict the future according to our training, experience, desires, and faith. It is an exciting adventure and I am glad that you will share in the journey through the general discussion which will follow this and other parts of the program, and that you can verify our findings in the days and years to come.

Beyond the assumptions that there will be a post-war world and that living therein will differ from the present and pre-war world, man possesses little that is definite. In fact, we must remember that the post-war world will never come on earth for those who have been and will be killed, that it is already here for some 1,250,000 veterans who have been discharged, and, granted that we knew when the war would end, such a period will never be a reality for those impracticable souls who will ever live in the future or dwell in the past.

The post-war world is being made now, but it will not be full-born with the signing of any armistice or treaty. It will come through a period of long transition—stages of progress and retrogression, each of which will depend upon countless human and material adjustments and readjustments

throughout this country and the world. It will affect individuals and institutions at different times and in different ways. We shall pass through much of it, as we have during this war crisis, without fully realizing the fundamental changes which have been wrought in our daily living. Furthermore, we must remember that many of the developments would have happened anyhow and that the world would have been different even though there had been no war. Limiting our discussion chiefly to the United States, let us review some of the conditions which have followed other wars. History never repeats, but there are certain analogies which will help us orient our thinking.

The period following the Revolutionary War is generally referred to as "The Critical Period." Economic depression, governmental chaos, debtors' revolts, threatened secession of the Western territories, and international difficulties in fields of diplomacy and commerce, highlight the 1780's. The end of the war brought a feeling of carelessness, a loss of unity, and an attempt to return to the petty affairs of everyday life. New problems seemed to invite further confusion, but ultimately the Constitution was adopted and the "Ship of State" moved forward into an era of greater freedom, justice, and opportunity.

Aside from Jackson's victory at New Orleans and a few naval engagements, Americans cannot take a great deal of pride in the War of 1812. The inconclusive Treaty of Ghent embarrassed the Government for years with diplomatic problems, and peace failed to restore normal economic conditions. Boundary disputes, foreign trade, and banking problems pressed for settlement; and finally the hard-times resulting from the war became widespread in the Panic of 1819. Recovery was gradual, but a large measure of economic independence had been won; and, all the while, pioneers were moving westward to build a greater America.

The Mexican War brought much territory to the growing nation, but unfortunately it raised dangerous problems as well. The assimilation of the Far West proved a much more difficult task than its acquisition, leading through a series of well-known sectional disputes to our greatest home-front war.

It is not necessary to dwell at length on living in the United States after the Civil War. It was truly a "Tragic Era" for the South and a "Gilded Age" for the North. The social, economic, and political phases of Reconstruction will find their counterparts in various regions of Europe, Africa, and Asia; and unless we are exceedingly careful a modern Credit Mobilier, Black Friday, and Panic of 1873 will rise through an accelerated industrial revolution, political mediocrity, partisanship, and public indifference to retard the advancement of the common man of tomorrow.

Enough has been said to indicate the pattern. Now you may ask, "Does it run true to form?" Many factors must be considered, and I never look

for unity among historians in interpreting cause and effect; but some of you may recall the tremendous changes which followed the wake of the Spanish-American War, and most of you remember the "hectic twenties" and "depression thirties."

Imperialism is not dead, although "dollar diplomacy" has given way to a new slogan. Aguinaldo, according to recent reports, is still living, and the Philippines, the white man's burden of 1898, along with Puerto Rico and other prizes of the War with Spain, will long remain problems. Yes, America became a world power with worldwide interests and responsibilities. The "Gay Nineties" like the "Fabulous Forties" of a century ago were gone forever.

The second decade of the Twentieth Century brought the World War, and in 1917 this country entered upon what has been called "The Great Crusade." Life has never been the same since—yet that war was on a small scale and of short duration compared with the present conflict. The "return to normalcy" was a misnomer, the "dry decade," ending with perpetual moratoriums and a world-wide depression, was a tragic era as far as world reconstruction was concerned, and the parallel of history draws too close for comfort with the mention of labor troubles, farm problems, Teapot Dome, and Al Capone.

Unless the pattern is changed by accident or through conscious planning, crazy-quilt or otherwise, difficult days lie ahead. The only escape from history is to control its course before the event in question comes to pass. The world is moving swiftly these days; and some idea of the number and complexity of our post-war problems, as compared to those of other eras, may be gained through an attempted projection of former wars to the magnitude of the present mechanized conflict. The picture is fraught with danger, but many hopeful signs are present. Best of all, the danger spots are marked; and since 1939 mankind in greater numbers than ever before, has learned that it cannot ignore such warnings and expect peace.

As World War II rushes to its climax, we should mention some of these historical signposts since they will condition much of our thinking and living in the days ahead:

1. No nation in the modern world can live alone;
2. True peace depends upon a community of principles and unity of purpose;
3. Peace treaties and international associations are not automatic;
4. Modern warfare is unprofitable for the victors as well as the vanquished;
5. Science and the products of the machine-age will be blessings or curses depending upon man's ability and willingness to direct them into constructive channels;

6. Private industry, government, or both must provide employment for the masses or expect discord at home and a recurrence of war;
7. Racial prejudices and beliefs in a "Chosen People" must be replaced by the ideal of a brotherhood of all mankind;
8. Nationalism, imperialism, and power politics are inherent in modern states, but these forces can be used for enlightened as well as destructive purposes;
9. Intellectual and religious freedom are essential in any World Bill of Rights;
10. Character is basic in individual, national, and international life.

Time will not permit a discussion of all these points, but as we consider them we shall do well to remember that the world we desire will probably be a compromise of our expectations. Furthermore, it and the plans devised for its regulation will be no better than the men and women who compose its population. War may have hidden, but it has not cured, the defects which brought it about. Even the democracies entered the conflict at a time when democracy itself was in the midst of a crisis. That crisis persists, and, aggravated by the destructiveness and hatreds of war, racial, labor, and political tensions, it will press for settlement. Therefore, without sacrificing idealism and long-range objectives, the dream-world of tomorrow must not be wholly impossible of attainment. It would be a tragedy if those who have fought for the Four Freedoms and the Atlantic Charter were reduced to the cynicism and frustration of those who fought for the Fourteen Points. Munich, the *Affaire Darlan*, and the plight of Finland, not to mention memories of "Uncle Shylock," should keep our blueprints on a practicable basis.

Before proceeding further with the world of the future, let's consider the question raised by Carl Becker: "What is wrong with the world we have or the one we had before 1939, or before 1914?" The answer, briefly stated, is war, and unemployment in time of peace. It seems that we solve one evil by creating a larger one, and unfortunately these two evils have become worse instead of better. A glance at the wars and depressions since the advent of the Industrial Revolution should convince all but professional doubters that old remedies will not break the cycle.

Other things are wrong with the world and these are part of the inventory which will condition living after the war. In the United States alone arable land is being reduced annually through one-crop farming and erosion. Exploitation of virgin forests and prairie sod has produced devastating floods and drouths. Gaping holes across the country indicate exhausted mines, and idle derricks rot over oil fields pumped dry. Conservation of animal life and physical resources, essential before the war, will be more urgent than ever as a result of its destructiveness.

In the fields of housing, public health, education, transportation, communication, law observance, fire protection, public safety, and the like, there is room for great improvement. It is true that we have created wealth and new means of producing it, but it is equally true that we have lived on our capital and used technology to squander great natural resources.

Living after the war will give us an opportunity to rebuild much of America and, in doing so, we shall find that its destiny is inseparably linked with the rest of the world. We shall also find that the future of our country, and of the world for that matter, will revolve around the age-old problems of security and liberty under law. Our ability to find equitable and workable solutions to these problems will determine the future of war and the effectiveness of democracy at home and abroad. An attainable goal lies midway between the Utopias of wishful planners and the pessimist's World War III of the 1970's.

Armistice day will be one of great rejoicing throughout the world, but will your life the day after be a great deal different from the day before? What changes may we expect in this brand new world? The following possibilities and probabilities are offered for consideration and discussion.

1. The demobilization of twelve million men will require two years or more. Thousands will be needed for the Armies of Occupation; and with the coming of peace, a year of compulsory military or national service will be required of all able-bodied young men.

2. When the war ends, the national debt will probably be around three hundred billion dollars. Taxes will remain high for years to come, the Federal budget will be balanced, and many economic war-time controls will be continued indefinitely.

3. The cancellation of war contracts, disposal of government stocks and properties, and the reconversion of industry to a peace-time basis will be attended with unemployment, labor-troubles, and a bitter contest between big and little business.

4. Returning veterans will have a controlling voice in the destiny of America for the next fifty years. In numbers and influence they will far surpass the Grand Army of the Republic or the American Legion. They are entitled to our gratitude and to justly earned rewards, but let us hope that the ideals for which they have fought and the freedoms which they will have won for America and the world will dominate their actions as a pressure group.

5. Organized labor will make an unwilling retreat with the end of the war boom. It will survive, however, With maturity and, subject to state and national laws and a better informed public opinion within and without its ranks, it will become a more stable and responsible element in American

society. It will constitute an active and powerful political block, but I do not expect a Labor Party any time soon.

6. Minority groups, particularly Negroes, will hold most of the gains they have made during the war. Friction between races may be expected in large industrial centers during periods of reconversion and depression. In some sections, like California, the war will serve to intensify the problems of minorities, but in the long run the American ideal of justice for all citizens will prevail.

7. War, with all of its evils, provides a great laboratory for medicine. As a result of new drugs, methods of treatment, and surgical skills the death rate from wounds and disease is the lowest in history. On the other hand, Americans must be on guard against the so-called exotic diseases of the orient and tropics. Public health services and individual medical care, whether labeled socialized or not, will become increasingly available to the American public. The life span of civilians will be extended further in the post-war world with renewed emphasis on old-age security.

8. Technological and scientific advances will exceed your expectations. Television; radar; electric wire recordings instead of records; plastics; light metals; pre-fabricated houses; synthetic foods, drinks, drugs, clothing, rubber, fertilizers, and the like are already here; but it will be a few years before we have new air-conditioned houses on every lot with a combination "tear drop" automobile and helicopter in every garage. New household and living comforts will surely come, but let's not forget the millions of homes even yet without running water, bath tubs, central heating, electricity, and other pre-war comforts.

9. We may expect a host of new government services, and a variety of political and social experiments will emerge. Innovations of the 1930's will soon seem as old-fashioned as Bryan and Populism. Most of the changes, regardless of the political party in control, will emanate from Washington under the police power, the taxing power, and the power to regulate interstate and foreign commerce. They will include additional protection for consumers, utility ownership and regional development patterned after the TVA, extensions of social security, regulation of agencies of production and distribution including agriculture, long-term public work projects, greater international controls over finance, trade, and armaments, and long-range planning.

10. Private enterprise in the fields of manufacturing and commerce, subject to generally accepted restrictions and considerable government competition, will, with the aid of planning, research, war-time discoveries, and enlarged domestic and international markets, continue. In agriculture, the idea of farming as a family enterprise will decline in many areas. The new

world will witness increases in collective farming, cooperatives, specialization, mechanization, and in the application of science to plant and animal life. Full employment in industry and agriculture is not guaranteed, but with required military service, national work projects, and new frontiers opened by the war, a high level of prosperity can be maintained.

11. The character and composition of the so-called middle-class, rural as well as urban, will be changed. The effects of the "managerial revolution," chain-store merchandising, and a "people's capitalism" will force a revision of our thinking in terms of classes. Rural America as well as Middletown will become money-minded—each possessing wants oftentimes beyond its means.

12. Continental air travel was safe and efficient before the war. World-wide air passenger and light-freight service will become commonplace in our time. Jet-propulsion planes may cross the Atlantic in five or six hours, and the cost of the trip from New York to Paris will be within price range of a Southern school teacher. Less spectacular but no less important improvements will occur in other transportation services and in the field of communications.

13. Among the intangibles will be the "cultural lag" resulting from the war, psychological dislocations, adult and juvenile delinquency, war marriages, and the increasing tempo of modern life. In fact, man must discipline himself if he is to continue his phenomenal control over the physical world.

14. Adequately supported schools and colleges of all kinds and for adults as well as children will characterize the America of tomorrow. The nation's greatest asset is its youth and these must be trained to live and work in a world community. Education will not only relate to life—it will become a life process. The war against illiteracy will be won, college enrollments will more than double, technological and vocational schools will increase, and the liberal arts will continue to perform yeoman service in the training of leaders. Media such as the press, radio, and television, will play increasingly important roles in influencing public opinion. Libraries and library services will open new and wider vistas to the treasures of the past and the opportunities of the future.

15. Religion will survive this war as it has survived hundreds of wars, but in many sections it will be on the defensive. Once again all churches may help erase the hatreds of war, and theirs is a tremendous responsibility, through the teaching of brotherhood and moral precepts, to see that man has a will for peace. As leaders in things spiritual, churches will be essential in the building and preserving of a better world. It is encouraging that

the pronouncements of Protestants, Catholics, and Jews on the basis of a just and durable peace are in substantial agreement. Let us hope that a war weary world will at last heed the message of the Sermon on the Mount.

The world will be tired of barbarism and philosophies of aggression, but in adjusting to peace it must not slump into indifference. Our conscience must be informed and sensitive to the principles of democracy. It must be sensitive to the needs and aspirations of others, although not in terms of a vague new social order.

During the present war thousands of young men have been rejected as unfit for military service because they cannot read and write or because of low mentality. Tens of thousands were unacceptable because of physical defects, disease, and malnutrition. This is a terrible indictment of the Government and way of life in the richest country in all history. Democracy, through education, physical training, and health programs must correct such crippling influences. If it does not do these things and provide a decent standard of living and a sense of personal dignity for every citizen, do not be surprised if people turn to some other system of government.

Furthermore, it will not suffice to solve the problem of well-being in this country or in the United Nations alone. All the world must find its answer and until it does there will be no real security anywhere. Fortunately, solutions worked out by free Americans, the descendants of all races, can be applied abroad. And, in this field of world cooperation as in all others, the masses of the earth will judge us by deeds and not by words.

Working and planning for a new and better world is something that should always be going on. It will be, as always, a slow and difficult task and the war has thus far failed to reveal a magic formula to assist those who will have the responsibility of drawing up a treaty of peace. There will be failures to be sure, but if we know our ideal and direct our steps accordingly we shall not fail the future or the past.

That there have been golden eras in days gone by no one will deny. But with a generous allowance for all handicaps, history fails to record an age or a people blessed with the challenge, the resources, the intelligence, the power, and the opportunity which are ours today and which will make living after the war worth the struggle and the waiting. Those possessing the vision and faith which has made America great know that the prospects of the future are brighter than those of the past.

Personally, I am happy to be here today, and I hope I can come back forty or fifty years hence and survey the accomplished wonders of a world in which a phase like "post-war world" no longer has meaning.

Post-War Planning for Agriculture

BY DANIEL RUSSELL

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Planning for Southern agriculture in the period after the war will be planning of a global character. We will be planning in a new world order or an old world order that we hope has new significance. If the war has taught us anything it is that what happens in one part of the world is of great significance to all the rest of the world. Guadalcanal, Tarawa, Cherbourg, Cassino, the Burma Road, and the Hounan Province are long distances from us here in Nashville, Tennessee. But what has happened and what is happening there is very close to all of us here in this conference room. Soon, we hope, the noise of battle in these distant areas will be over and stories about these exploits will be off the front pages of our newspapers, but what continues to happen in these areas and many other distant areas on the world will continue to be of great significance to us here in the South in a quiet, subtle, but significant, manner.

After the last world war we could not even put this idea over to our politicians in Washington. I wonder if we can put it over to our cotton farmers in the South after this war has ended. Prosperity for the Southern people will be dependent on two important factors. The first of these is keeping open the channels of trade between the countries of all the world. Too much of the economy of the South is based on the production of products, especially cotton, tobacco, and oil which cannot all be consumed in the United States. Before the war German families had to content themselves with wearing clothes made from pulp wood while our cotton jammed our warehouses for lack of a market. Many other nations of the world desired the bountiful products of the Southern farms but because of trade restrictions could not purchase from us, suffering themselves as a result and causing our Southern farmers likewise to suffer.

The second factor upon which the welfare of the South is dependent is optimum industrial employment in our urban centers. Our farmers are better off economically today than perhaps ever before, not because of large quantities of agricultural goods being shipped to our Allies as some would say, but because we have the largest industrial payroll in our history. These people with their good wages can buy the products of the farm at good prices. By the same reasoning when civilian production is resumed our farmers can buy the products of industry with the larger incomes received from farm commodities.

We have at this conference a separate panel discussing industrial development of the South. Well might these two panels meet together I think,

because so many of their problems are common. Whenever the man who works in overalls on the farm joins hands with the man who works in overalls in the factory to work together for a common good, these groups should enjoy more extended prosperity.

Likewise, we need more equalization of opportunities of education and freight rates and many other things between the South and the other parts of the country, so that the South may not be held in the future as a colonial possession to the rest of the nation, so that the South may speedily cease to be what the President's Committee named "the Number One economic problem of the nation." "The South can be the nation's Number One opportunity—if."

When this war closes, it is going to leave many of what were once the most powerful nations in the world completely paralyzed politically, socially, and economically. World commerce will be completely disrupted and broken. All fundamental organizations for the development and promotion of the agencies for civilization of mankind will have been greatly weakened or perhaps totally destroyed. There will arise, therefore, from this world catastrophe an appealing and urgent opportunity for some nation to hold aloft the light of civilization, and point and lead the way back to a sane, sound, and just plan of life for all nations, even those whose treachery and barbarity have brought civilization to its lowest ebb in many centuries. When we win this war, we are going to be that nation. Yes, we are going to be the most powerful nation that has ever existed. We will be powerful in many ways, but chiefly in the number of planes and ships we will own, and the food and raiment we will have at our disposal.

During the past three years agricultural production has been stimulated to peaks previously undreamed, yet there has been little stimulation or agitation for improved rural schools, rural health facilities, social security legislation, rural library facilities, knowledge of diet, child labor regulation, community organization programs, or rural housing facilities, though "war houses" have been constructed and renovated for urban industrial workers during the war period.

Rural progress of a social nature will not come about automatically nor spontaneously as a consequence of improve agricultural income. Programs for rural social progress must be implemented in the same sense that programs have been implemented for terracing the land, improving pastures, conserving the soil and increasing or controlling agricultural production. If we could use to the same degree the coordinated intelligence and effort that we have employed in inventing weapons and increasing production we could easily approach that elusive goal for "wholesome rural life."

A post-war program for benefiting rural society must be broad and flexible, and give provision for a continuing process of adjustment over a period of years. Perhaps the first cornerstone in the foundation of a program

would concern the intensification of those efforts in the direction of *education*. Knowledge is power and it is essential for better rural citizenship and an improved social and economic rural life. The truth is frequently discovered in the research laboratory; however, it must be extended to the rural people more readily and more freely.

The second cornerstone in our foundation would concern *organization and cooperation*. Both organization and cooperation are as essential to rural welfare as they have been proved essential to the development of industry and commerce. There is strength and power in organized numbers for the establishing of cooperative markets, establishing consolidated schools, rural health units, community welfare projects, and similar cooperative undertakings. Increased emphasis on rural organization and rural cooperation is imperative to a well-rounded, socially, and economically balanced civilization.

A third cornerstone would concern *teamwork*. There may be complete organization within each of two opposing armies but certainly no teamwork would exist between these opposing groups. Farm people may be organized and industry may be organized and yet there may be little teamwork for the mutual benefit of the two groups. Those factors leading to teamwork among groups must be accelerated, particularly those forces involving relations between: (a) agriculture and industry; (b) rural and urban groups; (c) government and agriculture; and (d) government and industry. There is immediate need for increased teamwork between all of these groups for maintaining the purchasing power and employment of rural and urban people after the war. A lowering of the purchasing power of the farmer or the industrial worker will dwarf a broad domestic and potential outlet for agricultural products and industrial goods. The present day foreign outlet for industrial and agricultural products will not be maintained forever under immediate circumstances.

The fourth and last cornerstone in our foundation concerns *legislative and economic equality* for the farmer. There must not be a relapse, after the war, of the meager gains in equality for which the farmer has fought for so many years. Rural society has not won its battle against the economic and social disparity fomented by unfair tariff legislation. The welfare of the rural South is affected by those handicaps evolving from the inequality of freight rates. The farmer continues to shoulder more than his burden of taxes in proportion to his share of the national income. The insecurity of the farmer is aggravated by unfair legislation which prohibits his participation in the insurance phase of the social security program. The farmer is pauperized in contrast to the industrial worker. The inequality of ownership of land continues to reflect itself in the educational, political, social, and economic weaknesses of farm tenancy. Timely statistics released by Selective

Service Boards capitalize the inequality of opportunity for educational and health facilities in rural areas.

It is evident that there can be neither national economic stability nor national social stability in America after the war if these legislative and economic inequalities are perpetuated.

Joseph W. Eaton in a recent book gave the following ten criteria for rural welfare now and after the war.

1. *Material Well-Being*

(a) Food in sufficient quantity and variety to sustain health and to be palatable and enjoyable qualities.

(b) Housing which is weatherproof and well ventilated and which can be heated satisfactorily. There should be certain conveniences such as indoor toilets, running water, hardwood floors, screening, electricity, and refrigeration. There should also be a sufficient number of rooms to allow for privacy to all members of the family.

(c) Clothing of sufficient variety for different kinds of weather and of sufficient quantity and attractiveness to satisfy aesthetic tastes.

(d) Luxuries such as newspapers, books, movies, musical instruments, sports, cigarettes, travel toys, and other goods and services essential not for subsistence but for the enjoyment of living. This standard of material well-being should be attainable without requiring work from youth who should be in school, the aged who should be relieved if they wish it, and women who chose to make their contribution to the home, and without asking anyone to work regularly in the mines, factories, transportation or offices more than forty hours a week or fifty weeks in a year, or to sacrifice wage standards which have been set by law.

2. *Secure Income*

(a) Regular employment throughout the year, which makes planning and budgeting possible.

(b) Job security to give workers a reasonable assurance of continuous employment and a protection against unreasonable employers.

3. *Good Working Conditions*

(a) Fair working hours which as a rule should not exceed eight a day or forty a week, except probably during harvest and other peak labor seasons.

(b) Vacations of at least two weeks a year, not counting sick leaves.

(c) Safety precautions against occupational hazards on the farm and a guarantee for adequate insurance and compensation in case of injury.

(d) Wages or income sufficiently high to support each farmer and his family at an adequate standard of living.

4. *Insurance Against Adversity*

(a) Unemployment insurance with rates sufficiently high to prevent a serious decrease in the standard of living of any farm worker and his family, if society cannot supply him with a chance to earn his living.

(b) Crop insurance of all crops for farm owners and tenants to protect them against climatic hazards.

(c) Old age insurance with payments that are sufficiently high to permit men who are no longer able to work to live comfortably.

(d) Health insurance to provide adequate medical care, dental treatment, hospitalization and the means for subsistence during illness to all farmers and their families.

(d) Death insurance to protect widows and children from poverty in the event of death of the breadwinner or his failures to provide for them for some other reason such as desertion and neglect.

5. *Economic Democracy*

(a) Equality of bargaining power of all economic groups, labor, management, capital, and the government (representing the interest of the general public)—to assure to all a just share of the economic product; also, to guarantee to all groups a right to participate in the determination of the conditions under which this economic product is produced and the use made of it.

(b) Equality of control of all economic groups of the productive resources, which are source of much political power.

6. *Health*

(a) Medical facilities within easy reach of rural residents, including hospitals, medical specialists and up-to-date medical equipment.

(b) Medical care for all who need it, regardless of their ability to pay for it.

7. *Education*

(a) Public school facilities including buildings that are safe, sanitary, and equipped for a modern program of instruction.

(b) Adult education facilities for civic, vocational, recreational, and general interest classes.

(c) Library facilities with a sufficient quantity and variety of books and with qualified personnel.

(d) Opportunity for taking advantage of these educational facilities by all rural people.

8. *Leisure for Living*

(a) Facilities for leisure activities, such as family living, recreation, educational, artistic, and social programs.

(b) Opportunity for taking advantage of these facilities by all rural people.

9. *Community Roots*

(a) Security of tenure to enable farmers to become integrated in a locality sufficiently well to feel "at home," acquire social status, make friends, and bring up their children in a stable environment.

(b) Political participation of all rural people through being part of organized groups and communities which can represent their interests effectively.

10. *Opportunity for Self Development*

(a) Advancement possibilities for all rural people in the economic, political, social, and other spheres according to their abilities and inclinations.

(b) Contacts with the larger world through convenient transportation facilities and through travel and local participation in national and international activities.

Development and Conservation of Physical Resources.—The land, with its cultivated crops, its grasses and legumes, its forests, its wildlife, and the industries founded on these raw materials, is one of the most important and most valuable natural resources that the South has.

Unfortunately a great portion of this land has been misused until today its condition is critical, its fertility much lower than its virgin state, its actual production considerably below its present potential production, and its fertility still declining through soil erosion and a lack of conservation treatment. Nearly three-fourths of the South's cropland and idle land, more than four-tenths of its grazing land, and one-third of its farm woodlands are severely eroded. These areas have lost 25 per cent or more of the original topsoil. Only one-twentieth of the cropland and idle land, and one-ninth of the timbered land shows little or no erosion.

Accelerated, or man-induced, erosion began with the clearing of the forests, the plowing of grass lands for crop use, and the over-utilization of the ranges and pastures by livestock. No one thought that the land could wear out, and even if it should there were new lands on which to move. It was not realized that soil formation is a slow process, nature requiring 400 years to make one inch of surface soil. It was not known that the average depth of the topsoil of all soils in the United States was only seven inches, and that the loss of any of this surface soil would reduce the possibilities for crop production. It was not known that soil erosion removes plant food twenty times as fast as the crops grown.

Our experience following World War I suggests that unless we provide other opportunities there will be a large scale back-to-the-land movement during the period of readjustment following the present war. Our national economic policy should be aimed at preventing or minimizing this move-

ment. Otherwise agriculture will again become the dumping ground for industrial unemployed and all of the maladjustments and attendant problems of the 1930's will again be with us.

The chief means of preventing over-shifting to the land is the maintenance of a high level of industrial activity. The importance of industry to agriculture cannot be over-stressed. We wish merely to say here that agriculture should provide for a fair share of the country's population. On the other hand, the people engaged in agriculture are entitled to a proportionate share of the national income measured in terms of the quantities of goods and services consumed.

During the past century the agricultural frontier served to absorb the shock of unemployment resulting from industrial disturbances. Good land could be had for the asking and the demands for a hungry world provided an almost unlimited market. The situation is now completely changed. The frontier has disappeared. Practically all good land has been exploited, and we no longer have free access to the world markets for agricultural products owing to the recent shift of our position as a nation from that of debtor to creditor and to the spirit of intense nationalism which has pervaded the world. In other words, agriculture no longer possesses the resources to absorb large numbers of unemployed industrial workers.

Furthermore, it is not in the national interest to create and perpetuate rural slums. Our national economic policy should be aimed at securing the most efficient use of our natural and human resources in all industries—both agricultural and non-agricultural. The efficient use of all resources not only permits the maximum development of existing industries but makes possible and encourages new enterprises and new services. A high level of efficiency in the production and consumption of all goods and services is essential to a high level of living.

Land Tenure.—In general, what is good for the national economy is good for the land tenure system. A thriving, productive post-war economy would greatly facilitate the development of desirable tenure conditions in agriculture, while an industrial policy of restricted production would inevitably lead to a decline of consumer purchasing power, the deterioration of markets, unemployment, and a repetition of the ill-fated "back to the land movement" of the 1930's and would profoundly complicate the solution of land tenure problems. Some of the defects of the existing tenure system may be remedied through processes operating entirely within agriculture, but no comprehensive, lasting improvement can be attained in the face of a post-war industrial economy based on scarcity.

It is for this reason that the first of the four proposed tenure objectives listed below is primarily one of national economic policy and secondarily, one of great tenure significance. The other three objectives, in themselves conveying broad implications, are in a large measure contingent upon a

realization of the first objective. The four objectives are (1) proper distribution of population between agriculture and industry; (2) proper distribution of population within agriculture; (3) home ownership of family-type farms; and (4) security of tenure.

Achievement of Ownership of Family-Type Farms.—Every practical means of implementing the national policy favoring family-type farms should be employed after the war. A two-dimensional approach is needed to accomplish this purpose: first, to assist worthy tenants, returning service men, and other persons desiring and able to make a career of farming; and second, to prevent the absorption of family-type farms into large multiple units which deprive the individual of control over the soil that he cultivates.

Credit.—Profitable production necessary to win the peace in the post-war period cannot be maintained on farms without the wise use of credit. Credit is needed (1) to purchase privately and in cooperative groups necessary equipment for wise management of soil resources; (2) to seed and sod seriously eroding cropland for permanent pastures; (3) to increase carrying capacity of existing pasture land through approved practices; (4) to reforest, when practical, cutover land; (5) to substitute grazing crops for row crops, when doing so is in accordance with a sound livestock program; and (6) to assure farmer that he will have enough funds to complete well-planned conservation program for his entire farm—or at least for that part of his farm that needs it.

Social Security.—Most of the literature since the publication of the "Roosevelt Country Life Commission Report" in 1908, has emphasized the inequality of the farm population of the United States as compared to the urban industrial population. Perhaps nowhere is this inequality more noticeable than in the Social Security program of the Federal Government. There are at present 2,149,187 farm people in Texas. Almost one-half of this group, or to be exact, 1,009,039 are in the dependent age groups, over 65 or under 18. This element of our population is the group that the Social Security program was meant to aid for the most part. Still this type of Federal insurance does not reach the farm people.

The average cash income on the farm in Texas today is \$237.00 per individual or a little less than \$1,000 per farm family. With such a small income one could not expect this group to build up a cash reserve to take care of unemployment, dispossession, old age, death or sickness or accident. Although the farmer does not receive social insurance benefits, he pays social insurance added on to the price of all industrial goods he buys. If this type of Federal insurance is so valuable to America, it should be extended to America's most needy economic group or eliminated entirely.

Housing and Equipment—Objectives.—The level of a civilization and the well-being of its people is reflected in the type of houses its people live in. It is not too much to claim that all farm people should have houses adequate for their needs, houses that are comfortable and attractive for family living and efficient for household activities. Many of the Southern farm homes, however, fall far short of these standards. Health, happiness, and productive efficiency of a farm family depends to a great extent upon the material comforts of the home. Money spent in improving farm homes to bring them up to a reasonable standard of decency and comfort would be more than offset by savings in expenditure for health, painful labor, and discomforts.

There is a need and there is a desire for better farm homes. We have the material resources, the machinery, the skill, the ingenuity, and the labor to improve and build farm homes so that they could measure up to any decent standard of comfort and efficiency. The only thing lacking in resources of this country to reach a minimum standard is our ability to employ the material resources of our country in a manner that will give us the type of houses and equipment we need and desire. There is no better time to examine this lack of ability than the immediate post-war period, when producers of the materials that go into houses and equipment and labor will be sorely in need of gainful employment.

Rural Electrification.—The advantages of electricity on the farm have been demonstrated during the last year or two as never before, when farmers having electric service have found that the use of electrical equipment especially on livestock and poultry farms goes a long way toward relieving a labor shortage. On all farms having electricity where any electrical equipment or appliances are available, a greater appreciation is realized as to the need for this equipment in relieving drudgery, saving labor, in producing and conserving food, and increasing the net farm income. The need for a maximum and efficient production of food will not end with the end of the war, so it would seem of major importance that electrified farms be supplied with additional farm wiring and electrical equipment as rapidly as possible. The efforts of the government to do this now through priorities is appreciated. It may be expected that those farmers who have had electricity during this period when it has been so unusually valuable, will put forth greater efforts to get electricity to many more of their neighbors.

Nutrition.—The ultimate goal in nutrition is to supply each person with the nutrients needed for optimum well-being. For a diet between low and moderate cost levels for the entire population, the South needs in addition to that which is now produced 51 per cent more milk, 26 per cent more potatoes, 39 per cent more green and yellow vegetables, and 45 per cent more other vegetables and fruits. The major problems involved in attaining these goals are (1) improvement over pre-war economic conditions both for rural

and urban people, (2) the development of an extensive educational program which will reach people of all ages, (3) the integration of nutrition education with the training programs of all professions related to nutrition, (4) the removal of unnecessary barriers to trade, and (5) an extensive research program.

This paper is not meant to be all inclusive in planning for agriculture after the war. Two especially important topics, rural education and rural health, have not been discussed because these are in a scope of other panels at this conference. However, if everything is done that is suggested in this paper we ought to have a better day for agriculture after the war.

Health for Tomorrow

BY DOROTHY B. NYSWANDER

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The future of this country depends on the way we make use of our natural and human resources. We are here today to discuss some of the problems in developing and maintaining the health of our human resources—the people, 130,000,000 of them.

At the present moment the best minds of this country are at work planning for the post-war period. Bankers and economists discuss the stabilization of our monetary system; manufacturers plan the means by which production for war can be converted to production for consumers; engineers now have ready projects for great national highways; architects are preparing blue-prints for the houses of tomorrow; chemists and physicists have new designs for conveniences and luxuries. All these are planned for the benefit of people; most of them are things for people to use. What of the people themselves?

It takes more than *things* to create a good life for people. Intelligent understanding and self-direction are necessary if *things* are to be used for positive purposes. For example, health centers and hospitals become of value only when the best professional skills are available, and when people learn to use them. Possessing the latest model of radio and auto and gadget has positive purposes only when their possession adds to the stature of the owner and to that of the group with whom he lives. To be sufficiently literate to enjoy the ideas of others and to create ideas of one's own, to evaluate ideas on the basis of scientific evidence—these are products of education. To develop and maintain health within the limits of one's individual inheritance and to work productively at a job—these are outcomes of health services and health education. Without education one cannot understand this nation of ours; without health we can neither contribute to nor enjoy it.

Today we are primarily concerned with the specific problems of health planning. Let us now draw together a few essential facts on our present

health status to use as a "spring board" for our discussion. Let us appraise our present achievements.

During the past forty years much progress has been made in bringing health to many people. No single casual agent is responsible for these brighter aspects of our national picture. Better standards of living; the outcomes of medical research; the effects of intensive nutrition education; the introduction of competent urban and rural county health departments; the education of communities to participate in solving their own health problems—all these have played parts in our changing health picture. These changes are reflected in statistical indices. One source book for teachers entitled, "The Health of a Nation," published by the National Education Association, gives us a few important facts we need to know. Let us look first at what has happened to our death rates. (1) The death rate of the population has been decreased from 16.2 per 1000 of population in 1910 to 10.8 in 1940. (2) In 1900 about 116 babies died of every 1000 babies born alive; in 1937 only 50 of every 1000 died. (3) Comparable figures are not available to tell us what our gains have been in preventing the deaths of women giving birth to children—but during the past 22 years for which we have records there has been no significant decrease in this death rate. There are now 12,000 maternal deaths in the United States yearly. They are largely preventable. (4) The decreases in deaths from four diseases have contributed to over half of the decrease in the mortality rate. These diseases are typhoid fever, diphtheria, diarrhea and enteritis, and tuberculosis. It is significant that these four diseases are those for which science has discovered definite control measures and public health organizations have thrown the weight of their educational campaign.

Death rates, however, do not alone reflect the health of a nation. To increase the life span of an individual may mean for many to increase the number of years of sickness and disability. We must be concerned with the incidence of illness and accidents. No census figures, comparable to those on mortality, are available on morbidity. Special studies however, show us how the nation's wealth (the productive vigor of its people) suffers when the nation's health is impaired.

We are a nation of 130,000,000 people—yet on an average day during the winter months, six million of the 130 millions were not able to do their daily tasks because of injury, illness, or the impairments following injury and disease. Through illness alone each person who works for a living loses about eight days a year. In addition, industrial accidents extract from the nation a high toll in money, in loss of productive power, and in human misery. And to obtain products which you and I enjoy, five and one-half million workers are exposed to dread and wasteful occupational diseases.

Sickness is costly when a person stops being a producer through chronic illness or physical impairment. The taxpayer loses in two ways—through lack of the wealth which the incapacitated person failed to produce and through the medical care for which someone must pay over a long period of time.

Has our progress been slow? Perhaps we do not spend enough to prevent and cure disease. We spend about three billion dollars annually. Maybe we don't have enough people working in the health field. There are almost one million and one-half people—and this does not include any teachers of health and physical education and nutrition. Or perhaps there are not enough hospital beds to go around. In 1940 there were one million and one-quarter hospital beds—about 50 per cent of them being occupied by patients mentally ill. Or is it that we are not using wisely and efficiently the money we spend on health, the medical staff we have, and the hospital beds. Perhaps we need to take a fresh start at some of these problems.

Although the death rates of both whites and Negroes have decreased, the effects of unfavorable social and economic factors are shown by the facts that the Negro death rate is higher than the whites, that rural death rates are generally higher than urban, that lower income groups have a higher death rate than their wealthier neighbors. A baby has a better chance of living if he comes from the more favored section of town. Few babies anywhere need to die. Why are there still such differences between states in the numbers of babies who die? In 1937 only 39 infants died out of every 1000 live births in New Jersey. During the same year 124 out of every 1000 died in New Mexico, 121 in Arizona, and 74 in Texas. True enough each one of us is interested in what his own state is doing, but as a nation we are only as strong as the state where the problem is least well met. Why, during the past twenty-two years, have we not been able to lower the death rate of mothers giving birth to babies? Is it that we have not taught our older girls and boys about the meaning and need for prenatal and postnatal medical care? Or is it that to some of the 250,000 women bearing children annually in this country without a physician's care no such care was available? Why do children still die from diphtheria, and adults suffer the ravages of tuberculosis and syphilis? These diseases can be controlled, perhaps eradicated.

Yes, we have medical personnel; but what of its distribution in this great country of ours? The cities over 100,000 population are favored. Such cities have 29 per cent of the population and 44 per cent of the private physicians. This 44 per cent earns 54 per cent of the total gross income which all physicians earn. In the rural areas of under 5,000 population which represents 48 per cent of the population, we find only 30 per cent of the physicians. And these rural physicians get only 18 per cent of the total income of all privately practicing physicians. The rural physicians are few in num-

ber. They earn comparatively little, and in 1940 the average age of this physician was over 52 years with the average age on the increase. Dentists and nurses are distributed even more inadequately to serve the needs of the nation.

Where are the various types of hospitals located? It would appear that there is a relationship between the site of a hospital and the financial ability of the area to support it. Of the 3000 counties which make up the United States there are 1300 counties that have no registered general hospital. Many other counties have only small private hospitals which take paying patients only. Often however, there are general hospitals with a low per cent of bed occupancy. Does this mean that there is no need for hospital care, or does it mean that there are other factors preventing the sick person from obtaining this care? Do ignorance or cost of hospital care or inaccessibility of the hospital contribute to this waste of facilities?

What are the keys to open the door to a healthier, stronger, more productive America of tomorrow? It seems to me that there are five:

1. More extensive research work which will enable us to understand and to control the health problems which still baffle us;
2. More adequate and greatly expanded public health agencies which derive their strength from community understanding and community participation;
3. Providing means of distributing medical, dental, nursing and technical health services to all parts of this country;
4. Intensive education of teachers not only in knowing the value of preventive and curative services, but in becoming interested in the socio-economic structure of a community to see that these services are made available; and
5. Revitalizing education for health and home-making in our schools to the end that this education prepares students for the family and community life.

Industry and the Consumer After the War

By JAMES E. MENDENHALL

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Stabilizing our national economy now is the major objective of the American people in their efforts to win the war on the home front and to assure a sound basis for transition to a prosperous post-war era.

The War Against Inflation Is Still Only Half-Won.—There is the ever-present danger that we at home will get the feeling that the war is already over, and will therefore relax our guards against skyrocketing prices and inequitable distribution of scarce essentials. Lest we do so, we should recognize

that the war against inflation is still only half-won, and that half-won is not good enough, not safe enough. Because pressures on prices and price ceilings continue strong and increasing, we must hold firm our war-time economic controls.

We should remember that 40 per cent of the inflation in World War I occurred after the Armistice of November 1918, that prices reached their inflationary peaks nearly two years after the last gun was fired, and that this peak of inflation was followed by a severe depression which brought business failures, farm foreclosures, unemployment, falling prices and wages, and grave hardships to millions of Americans. In this war our people are resolved that this shall not happen again; that is why they are doing all within their power to keep the national economy on a sound and stable basis.

Impressive Gains Have Been Made.—Although the war against skyrocketing prices is not yet finally won, the American people have registered significant gains. In the past twelve months, they have succeeded in holding the cost of living on a straight line; that is, without any over-all increase in the average prices of food, clothing, rent, and the other things which make up nearly all of the typical family's war-time living expenses.

Credit for this achievement belongs not only to OPA and the other agencies responsible for economic stabilization. Credit, in large part, also belongs to the thousands of volunteer citizens who have served and are serving on some 5,400 War Price and Rationing Boards throughout the nation. These Board members and their volunteer assistants have given generously of their thought, time, and energy to making price control and rationing work in their own communities.

Both the price control and rationing programs have been greatly facilitated by the voluntary contributions of the teachers, officials, and other school people of America. In their classes, schools, and communities, they have developed a wide understanding of the why and how of these programs, an understanding which has gone far toward building support for and compliance with war-time economic rules.

What's Ahead for War-Time Economic Controls?—Whether price control and rationing measures will be continued after the present renewed price control act expires on June 30, 1945, will of course depend upon what the American people and their representatives in the Congress decide in the meantime. OPA will continue to carry out the mandate of the Congress to hold war-time prices steady, all toward helping prevent the disaster of war-time inflation.

What about Savings?—In deciding what, if any, economic controls should be continued in force, serious consideration should be given to the war-time

savings picture. During the war period, these savings have mounted to an all-time high. At the end of 1943, the savings of individuals and unincorporated businesses were about sixty billion dollars more than they were at the end of 1940. This total is expected to reach one hundred billion dollars by the close of 1944.

Suppose that at the end of the war with Germany, the American people were to convert all these vast savings into cash and were to try immediately to use this cash to purchase new automobiles, new homes, and other new durable civilian goods. At the same time, it should be noted, the supply of these durables will undoubtedly be limited. The huge demand bidding for the relatively small supply may create a serious inflationary situation unless certain control measures over prices of essential durables are kept in effect.

On the other hand, these controls should be maintained only so long as necessary to the war program and to national economic security. Whenever it has been possible safely to remove controls, this has been done by governmental economic agencies.

Full Production and Consumption.—During the war, the United States has greatly expanded its productive capacity. In 1943, the total gross national product reached the astounding high of one hundred eighty-five billion. This was double the dollar value and three-fourths larger than the physical volume, for 1939. If the American people can maintain production at or near this high level (say at one hundred sixty-five billion a year), they can almost certainly provide enough goods and services to raise substantially the level of living for the majority of the population.

Education and Economic Competence.—After the war, Americans must be prepared to select intelligently among the new products available on the market. They must be ready to solve local and national housing and health-care problems. They must be informed about the best sources of consumer information. They must be alert to their responsibilities as citizens with reference to local, state, and national legislation which affects their consumer welfare.

All this means more and better consumer education in the schools and colleges, at all levels and in all departments of instruction. This educational emphasis will help to lift the economic literacy of children, youth, and adults so that they as consumers will function more effectively both as individuals and as members of society.

Post-War Employment

By E. J. EBERLING

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Can we as a nation maintain reasonably full employment after the war? Will jobs be available for every able-bodied man or woman who is seeking work in the job market at good rates of pay?

For nearly four years now we have seen what we could do when our industrial machine was operated at our near capacity. There have been jobs for practically everyone; our national income has increased from thirty-eight billion dollars in 1933 to one hundred fifty billion dollars in 1943, and, in spite of our unprecedented volume of war production, we have had plenty to eat and wear. In fact, we have piled war production upon existing consumers' production so that with the exception of a few spectacular shortages such as autos, radios, refrigerators, etc., we have had both guns and butter. This condition is one that no other country has been able to maintain.

But as we stand in the midst of this tremendous industrial activity, we are all the more baffled by both the facts of the past and possible developments of the future. For example, in the light of our war production activities, the long depression of the 1930's seems all the more unexplainable. Likewise, recalling our experience after World War I we wonder if we will again, after this war, be subjected to the vicissitudes of the business cycle with its lush and lean years, with its widespread unemployment and long relief rolls.

First of all in seeking answers to this problem it is well to examine in some detail the job before us. In 1940 there were approximately fifty-four million persons in the labor force. Of this number, eight million were unemployed and only three hundred thousand were in our armed forces. Only four million were engaged in munitions industries. As of June 10, 1944, the Bureau of the Census estimated we still had fifty-four million persons in the civilian labor force, of whom, however, fifty-three and one-half million were employed; leaving only 800,000 unemployed. During this period, however, our armed forces have increased from 300,000 to eleven million. This makes a total of slightly over sixty-four million persons in both the employed civilian labor force and our armed forces.

How has this been done? (1) By shifts from less essential industries of some five and one-third millions; (2) a reduction of over seven million in the unemployed; (3) the addition of five and one-half million women workers and some two and one-half million retired workers, physically handicapped, and youths.

Another way to view the changed pattern of employment is to note that slightly over twenty million persons are now engaged in war production.

These same changes in the labor force and in patterns of employment have occurred in the South. Here, too, we find the same phenomenal increases in employment and pay rolls, the same additions to the labor force, namely of women, older persons, and youths. Accompanying these changing patterns have of course been extraordinary shifts in the population; from rural areas to cities, from rural and urban areas to war production centers.

Some idea of these changes in the South may be gleaned from the following figures. Total employment in non-agricultural industries covered by unemployment compensation in Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Mississippi, and Tennessee amounted to 1,200,000 persons in July 1940. By July 1941 it had increased to 1,600,000 (an increase of 33.3 per cent). A year later, it had increased further to 1,900,000 (an increase of 58.3 per cent). It is significant that payrolls have increased at a much greater rate—in fact, over 100 per cent.

Most of this increase has been in manufacturing. In July 1940, in the five states mentioned above, there were 603,000 and workers reported in covered employment in all manufacturing industries. By July 1943, manufacturing employment had increased to slightly over one million (an increase of 66.5 per cent).

Similar data may be cited for Tennessee. Total covered employment in non-agricultural industries reported to the Tennessee Unemployment Compensation Division in 1940 amounted to 317,000 (monthly average). By late 1943 it had increased to nearly 500,000. Manufacturing employment in the State has increased from 150,000 in January 1940 to 250,000 during the first quarter of 1944. Construction employment has increased from a monthly average of 15,000 in 1940 to more than 80,000 in June 1944. Right here in Davidson County total covered employment has increased from 35,545 to 58,656—a gain of 23,111.

Spectacular increases have been registered by some industries. For example, covered employment in aircraft construction has increased from less than 1000 to nearly 20,000; chemicals from 22,000 to 40,000. Similar large increases have been recorded by the aluminum and ordnance industries.

Strikingly enough, considerable increases in employment have been recorded also in the so-called less essential industries. For instance, the wholesale and retail trade industry division showed an increase in covered employment of 10,000 between 1940 and 1944, from 77,000 to 87,000. Much of this increase occurred in the restaurant business, which had a total covered employment figure of 8,600 in 1944 compared with 4,400 in 1940. Likewise, similar gains were recorded for the dry goods and department stores; an increase from 15,476 in 1940 to 23,600 in 1944. The service industry division also showed an increase of 10,000 in covered employment

between 1940 and 1944, from 21,000 to 31,000. Of this increase the laundry industry accounted for approximately 4,000, increasing from 9,128 in 1940 to 13,000 in 1944.

Insured payrolls have increased at an even greater rate. Whereas total covered employment increased about 58 per cent between 1940 and the last quarter of 1943, insured payrolls increased from \$84,000,000 (quarterly average) in 1940 to \$193,000,000 for the last quarter of 1943, an increase of 130 per cent.

More than half the manufacturing employment in the five-state area is concentrated in thirty-seven local areas—the principal areas of war production. It is interesting to note that employment seems to have reached its peak in this area in the summer of 1943, a condition which obtained for the country as a whole. On the contrary, employment in Tennessee has continued to increase through the first quarter of 1944. There is evidence now to indicate that employment in the area (five-state) as a whole has declined slightly since the third quarter of 1943. Beginning with the second quarter of 1944 it is believed that the Tennessee figures will show a slight decline.

These data present some measure of the problem which lies ahead. For the nation as a whole, what will be the characteristics of the job market after the war? Briefly, we may cite them: in the first place, possibly some eight million service men will return to civil life. We can look for the shifting of many millions of workers from war to peace-time jobs in the period which may be upon us in the near future.

An excess labor supply will develop with millions of war workers competing with millions of ex-servicemen for jobs. Of course, many women will retire from the job market, likewise many old people will retire, and many younger persons will return to school. However, indications are that we shall have an effective civilian labor force of fifty-eight million persons after the war. With an allowance of two to four million persons currently out of work—for seasonal swings in employment, etc.—we would require say 54 million full-time jobs in the country. But we have only that many today. A fall to pre-war levels would create unemployment of greater than eleven million persons.

These data, in smaller proportions, apply to the South. Here we shall have to find jobs in civilian industries for hundreds of thousands of "war" production workers and for upwards of a million returning ex-servicemen and women. Here too, there will be extraordinary shifts in the population—a vast number of jobs will be lost and new hires secured. A large excess of labor may be expected until a successful reconversion is attained.

Of course, it is easy to oversimplify this picture. Reconversion depends upon many factors, not the least of which is the character of industrial activities involved. For example, in many industries such as clothing manu-

facturing, shoe, textile, food products, and others which now are producing "war" goods in large quantities, workers will continue on their jobs for the most part as conversion will be accomplished quickly. A second class of industries having a greater war specialization, such as railroads, steel, and coal, which have had an enormous expansion as a result of the war, will be converted quickly but at much lower levels of activity. A third class of industries, such as shipbuilding, aircraft, war munitions, and similar war industries will have relatively little demand for their products in peace-time. We are certainly not going to build twenty million tons of shipping nor produce one hundred thousand aircraft annually in peace-time. Yet billions of dollars now are invested in such plants and equipment. Here the question is not *how long* will it take to convert, but *to what* shall we convert? Our greatest problem of conversion in the South will be that connected with this latter class of industries.

Finally, as we view this picture, there is much to be optimistic about. First is the general feeling of awareness of this problem which is reflected in the vast amount of post-war planning now being developed. Second, the rather general acceptance of the thesis that we should not immediately banish our controls over prices and distribution of goods after the war. Third, the fact that we have a nation-wide unemployment compensation system with funds now exceeding five billion dollars; over sixty million dollars in this State—funds ready and available for the payment of benefits to unemployed workers. Fourth, we have also a nation-wide system of public employment offices which will provide an orderly labor market after the war; placing workers in jobs, with job counselling after securing necessary information about the labor market. Fifth, there will be a large demand for many consumer's goods after the war. Also, we should not overlook the great needs which will exist for building and highway construction.

Then too, many other factors should be considered on the "plus" side. Demobilization will likely be gradual, the new "G. I. Bill" will help veterans greatly in reestablishing themselves in civil life, many workers in war industries will retire on old-age security benefits; there will be a tremendous increase in school enrollments. Moreover, inasmuch as it appears that the war will end in stages, first with Germany, later with Japan, reconversion problems will not be so severe.

In conclusion, therefore, it would appear that while our problems bulk large and serious in the post-war period, nevertheless we are much better prepared this time to weather the storm than we were after the first World War. As I said at the beginning, we have demonstrated by our tremendous war production record what we can do as a nation when we are thoroughly aroused. With our present awareness of the dangers to our economic system which lie ahead, there is reason to believe that we can likewise achieve success in coping with these problems.

Schools After the War

By E. W. Doty

Dean of the College of Fine Arts, University of Texas

If we grant that education is the principal agency of society through which it preserves the best values of its past, controls in some measure its present, and may direct in larger part the course of its future, then educators as a group face one of the greatest challenges of their existence in planning our educational scheme for the post-war world.

In discussing schools after the war we are assuming that they and the society of which they are a part will continue to bear a mutually helpful relation one to the other. But if this is the case, the nature of the coming social order must be perceived to some extent if we are to come to any significant conclusions about the education which is to prepare us for life in that society. It is certain that there are going to be changes, but are they going to be such that we must resign ourselves to the view that the only thing we can assume with certainty is the fact of change? Is it possible for us to discern some general principles which run through the rich educational experimentation of the past hundred years on the basis of which we can proceed with some measure of confidence? Are there new social goals which education should present and help us to attain? Finally, which of the impending changes are of the greatest importance for those who are planning education for the future?

According to the best information available at the present time our post-war world may have some of the following features. Internationally, the United States will emerge from this conflict as one of the two or three most powerful nations in the world. Our power will be in our proved productive capacity, in our capital wealth, and in our natural resources. We will be third in size of population after Russia and the United Kingdom. In unused natural resources we may also be in second or third place. Our ability to maintain a favorable position in the world will depend then on our success in competing with these nations and others, in case we have a competitive international situation, or in cooperating with them in case we are fortunate enough to arrive at some workable scheme of international organization.

Our economic power will carry with it concomitant obligations in human and international relations. It is interesting to note in this connection that the history of England indicates that outstanding success there may compensate for the lack of a preponderance of population or any of the other material elements of a national existence. In fact, nations have grown powerful by developing their human resources when outstanding physical resources were lacking. Conversely, others possessing unusual natural resources have remained poor and backward. If education is the *sine quo non*

of prosperity, how can we prepare ourselves individually and nationally for these opportunities and responsibilities?

There are also internal problems which we know from experience are part of the post-war pattern in any nation. This time they will appear in aggravated form with several million people who must resume their civilian status. How can education assist them to make this change and at the same time maintain a steady progress toward a better society?

While we have not exhausted the list of the problems which we face, it seems that if we meet and solve the ones mentioned with some degree of success, education will have discharged some portion of its obligation to society in our time. What shall be the objectives of education if it is to meet these problems successfully? Fundamentally, and at the risk of oversimplification, I would say that our most pressing need is for outstanding, intelligent leadership. This leadership must be effective not only in the realm of the mind, but must be an equally potent force in government and in religion. Such a leadership should be capable of solving those internal problems which threaten our continued development as a democratic nation and should at the same time be able to steer our course internationally for the best interests of this country and the human race as a whole.

Historically, our American school system received part of its impetus from leaders in our political life who conceived of the schools as a place to train that enlightened leadership which is necessary for the successful functioning of our government. As long as we maintain public, free, state-supported education we have a responsibility to furnish an enlightened leadership for the nation which supports it. In addition to technical training in government and related subjects, one of the greatest services we as teachers can render is to instill into our students the idea that the service of the state is an honorable service and one which should enlist the abilities of our best people. We have made some progress along this line, particularly in the personnel of our national government. Today practically every member of our national executive, judicial, and legislative branches is a graduate of one of our colleges or universities. May we look forward to the day when this will be true to a greater degree than it is now in our state and local government?

Correlated with education for leadership in a democracy must be education of the body politic if our social organization is to function at its best. Figures issued by the United States Office of Education on school attendance in 1940 indicate that we were derelict in this obligation to an alarming extent especially in the rural areas. While 79.7 per cent of urban six-year olds were in school, only 56.5 per cent attended in the rural farm areas. The figures for seven-to-fifteen-year olds were better, being 96.5 per cent versus 88.8 per cent. The percentages fall again for the sixteen- and seventeen-year olds because of the number of states which do not require these

age groups to remain in school. Here we find 75.6 per cent in school from urban areas while only 56.8 per cent are in school in the rural areas. As long as nearly half of our population has little education beyond the eighth grade, is it any wonder that we choose our political leaders on bases other than their capacities to act wisely on the complex problems which are presented to them? But the proper education of our rural school population is much broader than the matter of school attendance. We must adapt our program to rural conditions especially keeping in mind the small rural school and its needs. We must have creative, stimulating teachers who will not have to rely on rote teaching methods. We must provide conditions which will prepare and attract the kind of teaching personnel needed to achieve these aims successfully.

In supplying the educational needs of the coming generation it is to be hoped that we will conserve the values which the different educational philosophies have contributed to the total definition of education. First, we must train minds to observe accurately and think logically. We also need to encourage realistic attitudes toward the self and its society. Second, the humanist has kept us aware of the importance of the aesthetic and spiritual aspects of personality. We must always conserve the best that is in the past while maintaining a contemporary-mindedness and education for adjustment to our present environment. Finally, we must instill in all students if possible the view that education is a process of continuous growth, of an ever unfolding personality within the social organization.

Without implying an unqualified endorsement of the progressive education movement, I should like to use the comprehensive statement of Lester Dix in his "Charter for Progressive Education" as a basis for our discussion of the resources of education in a democracy. Mr. Dix defines four main areas of study: "(1) the study of oneself—embracing the functions of guidance, of health and emotional adjustment, of the provision of basic necessities, of play, recreation, club and hobby interests, and all social activities; (2) the study of the social environment—the evolution, functions, and structures of cultures, particularly American society; (3) the study of the natural environment—the relationship of man and nature; his sciences of control, adaptation, and utilization; and (4) the study of the arts—the evolution, materials, skills, and attitudes of the arts of human expression, communication, and imagination." While all four of these areas are interdependent and all of value for certain ends, the principal question we ask at this time is which of these seem to offer the best preparation for our citizens in the years ahead and which will develop the calibre of leadership we need so desperately.

If our leaders and people are to be well-balanced, then the values in the study of oneself are fundamental. Nazi Germany is a graphic example of the disaster which can befall a nation when its individuals are deficient in mental health and it submits to an unbalanced leadership. The German

people have demonstrated their genius in the realm of science, but their lack of competence in mastering themselves coupled with their poor judgment in picking their leaders has resulted in their being a menace to all civilization. We may infer, then, that scientific competence alone is not an adequate source of training for statesmanship or a guarantee of sound political judgment.

The study of the social environment, the study of the self, and the study of the arts remain to be considered. While the larger part of our leadership training should undoubtedly be in the first two, i.e. the self and society, I should like to take this opportunity to point out the new possibilities in using the arts in relation to social and individual factors. I do not refer to professional training in the arts, nor to their traditional historical role in which they have functioned primarily as the private property of privileged groups. Perhaps we can best illustrate the possibilities inherent in them if we should take some of the problems which we outlined at the beginning of this paper and point out how they might be used by those who are aware of their potentialities. We have mentioned that our ability to maintain a place of economic importance in the post-war world may be in direct relation to our ability in diplomacy. In order to succeed in this field it is necessary that we have an internationally minded diplomatic corps and a nation which is aware of the qualities of our international neighbors. How are we going to understand the nations with whom we have to deal unless we understand their culture? Or to put the question differently, how better can we train the rank and file of our public in international mindedness than to introduce them to their world neighbors through the literature, art, and music of those nations? It may be that they can talk business in dealing with us, but our attempts to approach them on a business basis alone are doomed to frustration. We must learn to approach them on their basis if we are to establish a real understanding. Furthermore, the advancement of American democratic ideals will proceed more easily if along with our economic products we can present cultural achievements of comparable worth which express our national spirit as well as those of other nations. Early in the present conflict our state department recognized the importance of this approach in dealing with the Americas to the south of us and instituted a planned program of visits by our best artists, musicians, and men of letters. France and Spain have followed this policy for years with conspicuous success in terms of prestige. While this change in policy on our part was too abrupt to achieve its full effect, I am sure that acquaintance with Americans who have achieved in the arts and with American life as they could present it, has been a far more effective means of furthering mutual understanding than our previous years of dollar diplomacy.

How can we use the arts to assist in solving the national problems we know are ahead? First, they can facilitate the adjustment of emotional

tensions following the war by making opportunities for emotional expression available. That is feasible today as it never has been before because they are known to all sections of our society as they never have been in the history of this nation. Within the past fifty years through improved means of communication, through national subsidization of art in public buildings, music, and theatre we have disseminated them throughout our society. It follows that the more widely they are known the greater their possibilities for use as a social control and as a means of directing our emotions in constructive channels. While it is the responsibility of those who study the social environment to formulate the goals considered desirable in our post-war society, the arts offer an unequalled tool to achieve these ends and to create an emotional conviction about them. Even as we have used Victory "sings" during this conflict and others to maintain a victorious spirit, so we may find emotional release for the joy we will feel at the end of the war, or consolation for the bereavement which many of us are feeling already in the price we must pay to win. The arts can also be of direct therapeutic use in easing the post-war adjustments of those who have been in the armed forces. Education has a great opportunity here to develop a new field hand in hand with the greater emphasis on mental health which is coming into our schools. Through the crafts, we can train injured limbs and thus assist the individual to find a useful place in society more quickly. Through music we can reach minds that have become closed under the impact of battle experiences. Through the creative spirit inherent in all art activity we can re-process the soldier psychologically, helping him to re-direct his energies from destructive to constructive channels. Finally, we can help our rural areas to be more economically and psychologically self-sufficient if we develop a program of folk education and culture for these areas in the post-war period. Through such a program the people themselves will work out the kind of life and culture which is the logical development of their particular history and indigenous conditions. Because of these new factors which affect the status of the arts, I believe that any education which trains the coming generation adequately should continue to offer opportunities for each individual to know his cultural heritage and the cultural background of the other peoples in the world. Especially should our leaders be made aware of the power available through the arts for creating a better society.

Before concluding, I should like to touch on a few problems which are of immediate concern to those who are interested in the welfare of the Southern region. We are in the midst of an industrialization which will bring with it difficulties of many kinds. There are several methods of facing this development. We may declare that it is evil and that the only hope of the South for the future is in remaining an agricultural region, but we shall not succeed in stopping it. We may say that scientific studies should be de-

emphasized, that people should not continue to make technological improvements; but the only outcome will be that other sections of the country will capitalize on their inventive genius and continue to sell the products of their imagination, at a profit, to those sections of the country which do not encourage such developments. All such solutions ignore the fact that the nature of successful and happy human adjustment is in going forward to meet the future, rather than being the passive recipient of what it has to bestow. In this case we have the example of the North and the benefit of its experience in dealing with such problems. We do not need to repeat its mistakes, and with an aggressive forward-looking policy we shall not need to do so. How can we prevent civil war between capital and labor, the lowering of the birth rate, and the degradation of human life with its values? This is the joint responsibility of education, religion, and industry. Together we must affirm the fundamental dignity of man, encourage legislation which will improve living conditions, and facilitate the best possible human relationships. We must also see that the leaders in industry are made to feel their social responsibility, that they are truly humanized. The uses of the arts described in some detail earlier in this paper are only one example of the new techniques of social control we must discover and make generally available if we are to cope with these and other problems successfully.

Our post-war curriculum is going to face pressure to include many topics of lesser moment than those which have already been mentioned. I refer to such items as automobile driving, radio, or preparing for the air-age. All of these are important in relating the school program to the community, but they should not prevent our accomplishing the essential job of education. If the significant changes in curricula do not consist in the addition of the above-mentioned topics, or others of the same kind, what are the new trends going to be? Where may we look for education to challenge and engage the adventuring spirit of man?

Man's control over nature is going to be a continuously unfolding area, and new scientific developments will be one result of investigations in this area. But we have been repeatedly warned that scientific power does not carry with it knowledge of how to use that power for the best interest of the human race. We have also been warned that in this power we have the possibility of destroying our civilization or making its achievements memorable. It seems to me, therefore, that the most urgent frontier is that of social controls and of education of the individual in the mastery and technique of directing mankind in creative constructive expression. Only through a widely disseminated sense of social responsibility, through a conviction that the fundamental values of life are human values, and that of these the most important is reverence for life itself can we be sure that the future of our society is secure.

Schools After the War

By WILLIS A. SUTTON

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Why talk "post-war"? We are in the season right now. Thousands and thousands right now are affected. To date 1,400,000 have already been discharged from the army, to say nothing of the millions more who have been rejected largely on account of educational qualifications, and this includes health. This will show us that the job is now. If there is anybody that comes here today who is desirous of getting real information for curriculum building for the summer or fall, I'm going to tell you right now that it isn't curriculum that you need; it's action! I say this because of the mental inertia and laziness that characterizes teachers. I hope and pray that we will arise and come to ourselves. We have done it, we can, and we must do it! I am not speaking today particularly on any post-war program. I am tired of post-war stuff. I am talking about an immediate program to save this nation.

Quentin Reynolds made the most remarkable speech before the Democratic convention I have ever listened to. He was so broadminded. He talked on such broad principles. . . . He talked about these boys at war, and what they thought. He could not say whether they were going to vote the Republican or Democratic ticket. The important part, they were on foreign soil; that what they had never been able to discover in the shops and the factories and the schools, they had been able to find out there on those fields! They had discovered America and the American Way of Life! He described the men on the boats near the rocky shores of Salerno beach as they waited for the fatal hour. He told of the loss of twenty per cent of the total number, and the injury of many more. He talked of that "Open Door" that the chaplain had, where the sign read: "Open All Night." The boys had gone in singly, in two's and in three's, and had come out and sat on the deck, awaiting the signal. Then they began to say: "What are we doing this for? Why are we fighting?" Then a long, lean Texas sergeant came out of the room and he sat down for a few moments in silence. Then he said: "I know what we are fighting for—that *Open Door*, freedom of religion!" He did not say what denomination, whether Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish; from what country or city; whether blue blood, rich or poor. Quentin Reynolds said: "Those boys had to discover what America was and what it had been, and they found it out yonder as they came face to face with death!" The sergeant meant that system of religion that allows people to worship as they please; radios that are free; the newspapers we read. I am wondering if we realize that *we* have a battle to fight, and are we as teachers willing to fight that battle? It is the battle of America that I want to talk about this morning, as well as the battle of the Atlantic, the

battle of the Pacific, of Australia, or any other battle. There is a battle of America which is our job to fight. It is up to us to make America the type of land that these boys are discovering—the America that it has been in the past, and that in this past was an America which held to the truth and those ideals these boys are striving for!

There are a great many things that we as teachers have not thought about. What I am afraid of is that we have failed to put in the minds of our children the ideals of the pioneers of this country. I am not one of these people who boast about the greatness of our land. I have been recreant in learning what our children and people call the greatness of this country. I have thought of the years I spent in reading Greek and Latin; I have thought of how we showed fine maps. I've thought of that history we studied with the march of the Israelites into Egypt; I have thought how the details were planned, have taken time to write it out and to show the progress of that march. I stand here to say this morning that all this was aside. Come to the Iliad and the Odyssey; they, too, were nothing to compare with the march of the people across this continent, from Jamestown to San Francisco, from Plymouth Rock to San Diego. No people even in the South Sea Islands, ever suffered as much as the Mormons at Salt Lake City, Utah. Yes, I wish to look on a faith like this. I wish I could tell you, what it meant—3,000 miles across and 1,800 miles from north to south to build a land like this. I would like to say to you we ought to recount what were the things that made this land of ours great. What can you put into the lives of the children of this nation to represent those things that made America what it is? We can put into these young lives forward-looking things, vision, even beyond what you and I have thought about—not that we may glory in their achievement, but that we may aid in the service to mankind.

Let us look at some of the problems that we have to face. First, *we must fight for the home life of America!* It is worth fighting for! You know before I tell you again, yet I say there is nothing so vital in this land of ours as home life. I get most I know by inspiration. If there is anything in life I treasure, it is my own home life. If I had a million dollars and a home life to choose between, I would scorn the million dollars! *What America needs is home life!* You school people can do a lot about that. You can put into your curriculum courses in home-life and marriage, what they mean and their responsibilities. I repeat the greatest job America has before it is to do something to bring back the right kind of home life to Americans. That is what we need in our schools. That is what stays with the people. It is the rock bottom of our nation's foundation, this family life. I can give you this as a dead certainty; any nation approaches nearer and nearer to the possibility of war as divorce increases. I can prove this to you by citing Rome, Greece, and other countries afflicted by the decay of the home. How can a nation be at peace when all its families are at war? We have to face

this. What we ought to do is to do something about it now—not later, but *NOW!* If America is to be safe, it must build its strength upon the stronghold of family life. It needs to rear children—not just one child, but many. Birth control may be a good thing in some cases, but it is the wrong way of living. The strength of this nation depends on the love of one man for one woman. We should understand this, and we can do a lot about it in the schools. You, as teachers, can teach the sanctity of the home; how to meet difficulties that arise to threaten the home; how to overcome them. If you as a teacher can give that kind of advice, it will reach the individual child and have everlasting influence.

The Battle for America is the Battle of Home; the Battle of America is the Battle of Integrity! That is something we have had in this country which made it great. I believe with all my soul that when a man has had training in character-building and integrity, you can believe in what he says. Integrity is the basis of life. I believe in progressive thinking, but I want to tell you something: *Real progress in education is when men and women in education get down to the fundamentals that make up Life—Integrity, Truth, and Character.*

I would like to say that the prejudice between the races raises the question of doing something. I was approached in Atlanta with a petition signed by 17,000 persons, requesting that Jews and Catholics not be permitted to teach in the city schools, with guarantee of life-time tenure of office as reward. I ignored that petition and stayed in that position. Integrity! When a man has that, he will live longer and with greater prosperity. We need in this country some backbone. We need this in the teacher as well as what we teach to the child. People who teach temperance should practice it. Just what are we to teach in the curriculum? First, in the light of the teachers, teach a boy or girl to do better what you see he *will* do anyway. When we teach integrity, we are getting down to basic things and we are beginning to accomplish something.

Wouldn't it be sad for our boys to come back here from the land where they had discovered America and find that we had not discovered political, civil, and personal liberties? *There should be no discrimination between races!* We have got to have an America that our boys can come back to; one that is not boxed-up by arbitrary conditions, one in which people recognize that every personality everywhere is dear to God as a human being. We are Americans. Wouldn't it be too bad if America discovered herself on the shores of Crete, France, and the South Seas and found a heart that was big enough for the whole world yet found a cheaper idea of democracy on our own shores?

We need to teach America that we can't go to the South Sea Islands; nor around the whole world, and say that we believe in democracy, and then shut the door! It isn't good politics! Why should we shut eleven

million people out of the Democratic party, or the Republican either, for that matter?

I believe in something bigger than that, and that is that we stand for and believe in civil liberty; we believe in political liberty. That is what made America great. It is an ever-expanding circle. I was one of the two persons that signed the petition to allow women to vote in Atlanta. Yet we have such petty restrictions to our civil liberties. What of the pusillanimous poll tax? I wish we could understand that this country must fight in its public schools for *Civil Liberty*, for *Political Liberty*, for the right of individuals to grow and develop if you want to build a curriculum where people will progress in terms of democratic idealism and basic understanding necessary for the common welfare of all, not in terms of races and colors, and not in terms of fixed prejudices that have accumulated through misunderstanding and ignorance over a period of years. *We made America great when we expanded civil liberty.* We've got to keep fighting for the success of America.

The things that have made the problems of America have made possible our success! All the problems of America have been problems of success. They have not been problems of failure. We have food enough to feed everybody; we have clothes sufficient to clothe everybody—the very richness of our land creates its greatest problems. Now I am faced with a paradox. Why did a great God, with people starving to death in millions of places on the face of the earth, leave out of the mind of the imagination of man the wealth that lay here from three thousand to four thousand years; riches of oil, coal, and a myriad of natural resources, while other people starved to death? I would like to understand it, but it is just like all paradoxes! Our problem is the problem of the success of our land. The success of all this rich land, the expanse of it—we have got to do something about that success. There was industrial England who tried to keep us from becoming a country of industry. She wanted us to be a source of raw materials. We achieved success in enterprise and industry, but production brought with it labor troubles and other problems which confront us today. It has been the inevitable success of our industrial system which creates our endless problems.

I point to the figure of John D. Rockefeller. There would be no more chance of our winning a freedom for the whole world without the achievement of John D. Rockefeller and men like him than it would be of flying through concrete forty feet thick! Once when I was a young teacher, a boy brought a list of automobiles which he had seen on the road in one day. He could name them by their makes—there were sixty of them. Today count them—Ford, General Motors, Chevrolet. . . . Yet I stand here to say that it would have been as impossible to win victories for the peoples of the earth without assembly lines as it is to dream things. I reemphasize that it has been the success of this country that is creating their problems.

We have our religions: Protestant, Catholic, Jewish, and others. With them are their problems. Look at our financial success: where else in the world will you find as busy a people with such high standards of living! Where else in the world will you find on an average of every twenty-five miles a school campus? Where in the world has the enrollment in schools equalled almost one-third of its population (although war has now almost forty per cent)? It is our success that has created our problem and made us great. It ought to make us humble.

I come to the last thing. God in his wisdom is going to give us success. We know this in our hearts. We are going to put down the forces of oppression at a terrible cost, both with our own blood and that of our adversaries, but success is coming to us. It will create problems. If we are to continue to have success, we must have full employment; we must have production; we must have complete distribution. Can you teach the children of the coming generation that profits are a secondary matter? Have we considered profits in winning this war? Could we not say that we are going to continue to have full profits because we are going to have full distribution? We must teach our children that we will not exploit peoples. We became an industrial country; China remained an agricultural country. There are other countries I could point to which have been restrained from development of their resources with disastrous consequences. There must be no more mandates just to keep people in subjection. There must be no more ideas that success comes to us but not to others. Our success in this war will bring problems greater than ever before. We shall have to think about South America and Mexico. What are we going to do about them? My dear friends, we have got to learn that we can't exploit other people!

Shall our success make us mean? Think of what we are doing! Millions have been spent for war; cannot millions be spent for education. There must be guidance for reconstruction. A report comes to us that the destruction of land in Europe is so complete that it will take ten times more work to prepare it for agriculture than was necessary for the pioneers to claim the woodlands of America.

Woodrow Wilson saw what it meant in the last war when he asked Congress for ten billion dollars to stabilize the currency of Europe. What was the result? The Senate rejected his plan. There was a debt of four hundred billions of dollars! Seeds were sown for the present war, affecting the lives of fifty million people and the destruction of art that cannot be counted in value.

Yes, our success will be so great that the army will come marching home and say, "We have won the victory, let's go home!" And we will say, "Let them settle the rest over there." And if we do that, exactly what Woodrow Wilson said will happen again: "If you *don't* do this, the sons of these veterans will fight a more terrible war!"

If we don't learn that success brings many other problems, if we don't teach the children they are the ones that will have to settle these problems, if we don't teach the children that all men are brothers everywhere and help condition mankind for a peaceful era—therein will we fail. If a million teachers will stand in a million classrooms with a curriculum for rightful living and teach thirty million children, so that they in turn may teach their parents through Parent-Teacher Associations, that there is justice in this world, that there is a God that presides over its destiny, that we have the privilege of working with Him or against Him, and that if we work with Him, our problem of securing success becomes an everlasting success, while working against Him makes our problem of success glean only another problem of disaster, then we will have taught a curriculum suitable for mankind!

Rural Education After the War

BY D. HARLEY FITE

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After the war rural education will give much more emphasis to the development and conservation of all our resources, both physical and human. Schools will be led to give much more consideration to community interests. Our local communities are now having new problems because of the war, and at the end of the war many more will develop.

Functional Education

Most of us are interested in functional education. There is a popular demand for an education that really functions in the lives of boys and girls and men and women. The war has placed a new value upon what we might call functional education.

The local units of public service throughout our country will attempt to solve as many local problems as possible. There has been a tendency in the past to leave such problems to the state and federal government. In the future, the school in the rural area is going to take the lead in this. If not, we will have lost the local initiative that we are so interested in. The school gives us the last opportunity to focus attention upon and to solve local problems.

A Richer and More Diversified Curriculum

The lack of holding power of our rural high schools is one indication of a need for a richer and more diversified curriculum. With the coming of the war many high schools added a variety of courses that were directly related to the war effort. The success with these courses has paved the way for more liberal offerings after the war.

Jobs will be scarce after the war for teen-age boys and girls. Our schools will need to be attractive enough to keep them interested and in school. Our curricular offerings will need to be rich and varied so as to appeal to the students who are mechanically minded as well as to those who are literary minded—to appeal to those who are gifted in the use of their hands as well as those gifted in learning the classics.

Rural schools must guide and direct the social, the physical, and the emotional growth of boys and girls as well as the mental growth. The development of right attitudes, ideals, and emotional control should be of major concern to our teachers. The curriculum of pre-war days was concerned to a large extent with the transmission of accumulated knowledge. The high school curriculum of the future must permit teachers to deal with current problems. Problem-solving techniques and scientific thinking must be given our boys and girls if they become useful citizens of the world of tomorrow. We cannot foresee all the problems that will face our children in the future. We can, therefore, teach them how to attack present problems, teach them resourcefulness, individual initiative, and personal choice. By these means we can train them to cope with problems that lie ahead.

Scarcely can we find a rural school today that attempts to help the child understand his community problems, his own environment. Units on the farm, the home, the local community are almost totally lacking. Schools should study subsistence farming, protection and conservation of life, health, and resources, cover crops, diversification, crop rotation, sanitation about the home, balanced diets, economic conditions, and local civic life. The way of life in rural areas should be made attractive and profitable to the intelligent as well as to the dull.

Not all rural boys and girls should be forced to remain on the farm, however. The curricular offerings of rural schools should be broad enough for every child to discover his talents and abilities. Rural schools should direct boys and girls into the fields of work that they are best fitted for by natural talents.

Rest and recreation are essential at all times. There will likely be shorter working days after the war. Leisure may be restful and recreative, or it may be degrading and exhausting. Leisure pursuits have been neglected in rural areas. Music, art, dramatics, handicrafts, nature study, hobbies, reading, athletics—a multiplicity of profitable, lasting, recreative leisure-time activities—should be promoted in our rural schools.

Music and art, almost wholly neglected in our rural schools, should become an integral part of our rural school curriculum in the near future. These should not be taught merely as decorative enhancement of the curriculum but as a basic means for expressing learning in terms of activity. These may help visualize facts and feelings, communicate ideas and sensations.

A physical fitness program is needed in all our rural schools, from the standpoint of both health and leisure-time activity. Forty-two per cent of the people of America say they take no systematic exercise whatsoever. The army found our boys lacking in strength, endurance, agility, and coordination. These must be developed in school or they will not be developed at all. They cannot be developed in less than one hour daily. Skilled leadership is necessary if we expect a good physical fitness program. Only teachers who have a thorough understanding of biology, anatomy, physiology, hygiene, first-aid, educational philosophy, educational psychology, and personality growth and development should be put in charge of the physical education program. The physical education course should consist of more than mere sports or athletic contests where only a few get the benefits of the game. The program should include every boy and girl, the physically handicapped as well as the robust. No other activity should be substituted for the physical education class.

When life becomes broader education must be broadened. Our world will be smaller and the complexities of life will be broadened after the war. If we live in peace it must be world peace. To live in peace with the world we must understand the world. There is needed a knowledge of world resources, of regional resources, of human achievements, of human relations, of racial and national interests, of personal and group opportunities, and of political and social possibilities.

Unless we understand and appreciate the past contributions, the present and future possibilities of the peoples of the many countries, there is little hope that we can have a warless world. We cannot legislate tolerance and understanding into being. In order to have a society in which individuals of different races, or religions, or cultures are allowed to develop their potentialities to the fullest, we must have people who have early in their lives been taught to accept these differences as natural human facts.

Armed Services Personnel

One of the problems confronting both rural schools and urban schools after the war will be the education of young men and women who are discharged from the various branches of our Armed Services. More than three million of these people have stated a desire to gain further education of some sort. Fifty per cent of them have expressed a desire to receive further education in their local communities. Whether they will want to return to their local high schools and grade schools or whether it will be more desirable to set up regional vocational schools, special sub-college schools, or to convert the local colleges into training centers for them, is the question that seems unanswerable at the present time.

The Problem of Consolidation

Another problem that occurs in community educational systems is that of consolidation. Today we realize that in many places we have over-consolidation, and as we face this problem after the war we will do so with much caution. We will find that there can be good small schools as well as good large consolidated schools.

The optimum size of a school cannot be definitely stated. In some places consolidation can be carried farther than in others. A school should be as large as possible not to destroy local initiative and local community centers. A school should attempt to solve community problems. If a school serves too large an area, teachers will be unable to point their efforts toward a solution of the problems of the area.

Trained Personnel

A problem that we shall have to face after the war is that of securing good teachers for rural areas. Since the task is greater, rural teachers should receive more pay than city teachers receive for their services. We should build homes for those teachers in our rural communities who are unable to find wholesome living conditions available. We ought to dignify serving in the rural schools rather than in the urban schools.

Certification laws in nearly every state in the union permit unqualified teachers to fill classroom positions. Many states issue certificates on one year of college training with a minimum of professional courses and practically no directed teaching. Still many other states grant life certificates to people who have had only two years of college work with only three quarter hours of directed observation and practice teaching. It is not likely that states will raise the requirements until there is a surplus of certified teachers, be they ever so poorly trained.

There is an inadequate supply of well-trained teachers for rural schools today, and there will continue to be too few when the war is over. The supply of *certified* teachers was adequate before the great exodus to the armed forces and to industry, but only a part of them were *well-trained*. Already many states have lost from thirty to fifty per cent of their certified teachers. Many former teachers will make the supreme sacrifice, and it stands to reason that many of those who left the profession for other work during the war will not return. So we may conclude that the supply of *well-trained* teachers will be less adequate when peace comes than before the war.

The likelihood of a shortage of trained teachers after the war is increased also because there are only a few people preparing to teach. The number of people now training to become teachers is only a small fraction of the number needed to make replacements in normal times. We may, therefore, conclude that the shortage will last for several years.

Salaries

With Federal support for education after the war we might expect better salaries for rural teachers. Without this, salaries are likely to continue to be very much below what is needed to attract and hold people of ability in the profession. The tendency in the past has been to reduce appropriations to schools first when there is a large public debt or in time of depression. We surely have the former and probably will have the latter soon after the war ceases. The prospect of poor pay lessens the likelihood of having an adequate supply of well-trained teachers.

Supervision

Already in Tennessee and in some other states steps are being taken to provide supervisors for every county in the state. It is true that supervisors are being added faster than well-trained personnel can be found. But the trend is toward more supervision and better supervision.

The shortage of adequately trained teachers for our rural schools has made it imperative that some sort of in-service training program be fostered in each administrative unit. The logical director of this in-service training program is the supervisor. In light of the above facts it seems reasonably safe to predict that supervision in rural areas will grow in favor and will improve in quality.

In-Service Training

Already there has been an extension of in-service training programs for rural teachers. The present-day trend of in-service education is based, not upon the lack of pre-service education, but upon professional education as a continuous growth. The need is accentuated, however, by a desire on the part of administrators and supervisors to give help to the many "permitted" teachers who have been called back into service after several years of retirement. This will be one of the biggest problems after the war.

The prospective teacher should be convinced long before graduation day that she is committing herself to a lifetime of continuous study and education. The beginning teacher has a right to expect intelligent guidance from those who are responsible for her growth. She needs counsel, guidance, and help in locating and organizing material which she is to teach and in studying her children.

No longer does the teacher succeed by working in her school independently of her co-workers, the community, and the world at large. She understands that her objectives can be reached only through cooperative efforts of all teachers, administrators, and patrons working together on a definite and well-planned program every day of each week through the full year of twelve months.

A successful teacher must have the skills which enable her to establish a classroom which is a living, growing situation. Such a program of in-service

education can be obtained through some of the following ways: supervisory programs, follow-up work of the teacher education institution, extension work or Saturday classes, summer schools and short courses, curriculum conferences, curriculum revision programs of county units, teachers' meetings, conferences, clinics, community workshops, demonstration classes, exchange of teachers, interschool visitation, professional contacts, and enriched living.

It seems likely that the most effective means of training teachers while in service will continue after the war. With new problems growing out of the war and the peace, with adjustments needing to be made, and with a majority of teachers having had their training under pre-war conditions, it will be more imperative than ever to have a good in-service training program.

Role of the College

Teacher education should be thought of as a continuous process. Teacher education institutions now realize that a brief period of pre-service education cannot adequately prepare teachers for effective service. Any discussion on educating teachers must, therefore, deal with both pre-service and in-service education.

The prospective teacher should be given practice in analyzing community needs, practice in working with and using other social service institutions, and practice in using local environmental materials.

The teacher education institution must educate prospective teachers in attitudes. Teachers must be taught to think in terms of human values. To do this, the teachers college must shift the emphasis to individual development. Howard Odum says in *Southern Regions*, "The greatest waste of all is reflected in the vast potential power of millions of youth undeveloped and untrained, moving through life without sensing their abilities or maturing their capacities, oblivious of the wide reaches of opportunity." Teachers must see the children as individuals.

Teachers need to accept the idea that the school has an obligation to improve the quality of life in the community as well as to transmit accumulated knowledge. The enrichment of community life should be one of the school's objectives. Too many teachers, even today, seem unaware of the social, political, economic, health, and land waste problems of their communities. Prospective teachers must become conscious of such problems and realize the need for regional planning and feel the obligation of education in solving these problems. To obtain this objective of education, teachers colleges must set up programs for the enrichment of life in the areas they serve. Every function of the school should be pointed toward the school-rooms and the homes of these particular areas. To do this the members of the faculty, both the teachers of academic subjects and of professional education, must know the field they serve. Every faculty member should know

the different types of communities and schools from which college students come and into which graduates of the college go.

Formal education alone is often ineffective in preparing students to become successful teachers. Actual contacts with social and economic conditions are necessary. The field of service should determine the type of practice teaching offered by the college, opportunities for students to practice under similar conditions to those in which they will teach are necessary. I believe that the kind of preparation suitable for urban teachers is inappropriate for rural teachers. The background, attitudes, and experiences of the pupils are different. To be effective as a social force, education must be rooted in the cultural background, customs, habits, attitudes, and needs of the people. Therefore, every teacher education institute should have an off-campus practice school.

Experience has demonstrated that the beginning teacher who has done only practice teaching has many adjustments and adaptations to make before she fits into a practical classroom situation. Teachers are faced with changing philosophies, shifting emphases, an unstable society, and a less selected student body. These conditions demand increasing skill in developing new materials, in teaching techniques, and deeper and keener understandings, judgments, and visions.

In view of these many changes and the increasing demands, it is more imperative than ever that beginning teachers have wise guidance in making such adjustments and adaptations as are necessary to their successful teaching. Hence I recommend internship or cadet teaching. This period of internship should provide close and continuous supervision, a period of intensive student teaching, a gradual transition from student to teacher, many community contacts, and a genuine life situation.

In areas where there are few county supervisors the college should have a field worker on its staff to help bridge the gap between the public school and the educational institution. This institutional follow-up is an auxiliary agency for progressively reconstructing the experiences of the beginning teacher. It should not displace local authority or local supervision but should cooperate with both. The cooperative efforts of the teacher education institution, the school superintendent, and the beginning teacher in understanding the problems confronting the beginning teacher should make for better teaching in both the public school and the teacher education institution.

Even in areas having their own local supervisors, colleges should send out for brief periods some members of their own staff. These teachers should include education teachers, practice teaching supervisors, and teachers of professionalized subject matter. Those visited by the field workers should include only graduates of their own school, and this only after a conference with the superintendent and supervisor. They should visit the teacher at

work for a half day or a whole day according to the needs of the teacher and the time at the disposal of the supervisor. The visit should be followed by a conference giving advice, suggestions, and encouragement as they seem needed. The whole program of teacher education in colleges should be organically integrated with the program of the public school system where prospective teachers are to live and work.

Curricular Changes After the War

BY W. T. EDWARDS

Acting Director, Division of Instruction, Florida State Department of Education

We are to give our attention at this meeting to a consideration of curricular changes after the war. Before we proceed with the discussion we should, I feel, clarify our understanding and attitudes with reference to certain world-wide developments now in progress. Are we to assume that the phrase "after the war" signifies a return to pre-war thinking and action? Can we plot sound educational progress in terms of the past, the present, or the future without giving consideration to the three in relationship? How boldly will society plan, and will this planning affect to an appreciable degree the extent to which we, in education, can plan effectively to meet such needs as the conservation of natural and human resources, the harnessing of technological progress to social ends, and the promotion of world-wide understanding and cooperation.

As we look upon the educational changes taking place in the war-time era we see these major developments taking place: (1) extensions of the school program to include nursery schools, defense training, various forms of post-secondary education and adult education; (2) a two-way development in curriculum emphasis including general education on the one hand and vocational education on the other—a trend which is filled with dangerous opportunities at both the secondary and college levels; (3) the development of a wide variety of youth programs designed to enable adolescents to meet in particular their economic and social needs; (4) a re-birth of emphasis upon the social aspects of education which make for greater individual and group concern for wise utilization of total resources for democratic ends; (5) an upsetting of concepts pertaining to course organization and methodology to a point where many old patterns are no longer tenable but where few satisfactory new arrangements possessing continuity and balance have been worked out.

Basically we face a wide variation as to what constitutes an education. The news commentators reflect public opinion when they pose as experts in the field of education and criticize the schools:

(1) For abandoning cultural education and, in the next breath, for not making it "practical" enough;

(2) For not teaching basic understandings and, at the same time, for not drilling more thoroughly on the fundamentals;

(3) For not adopting up-to-date army procedures and important content fields, and upon second thought, for including the frills such as music, physical education, and visual education;

(4) For not inculcating moral values and, at the same instant, for including courses labeled as "social problems" which deal with issues and problems facing the nation, state, or local community.

A point-of-view is therefore necessary if we are to deal with the various aspects of curricular change that have been intensified in the war-time era. If we are to assume that past, present, and future represent a continuous process, and that education will not go forward properly without purposes which are validated by democratic principles to which we subscribe; we need pause here to review a few statements to be found in the curriculum materials produced in almost every Southern state represented at this conference:

(1) That all "cultural" education can be taught so that it becomes "practical and useful"; that all practical education can be taught so as to become "cultural" in the best sense of the term;

(2) That understandings, facts, and skills are parts of the total process of learning;

(3) That any satisfactory definition of "minimum essentials" must be based upon immediate and long-range needs of the individual and society;

(4) That all education can and should concern itself with democratic moral values, and that freedom be given the public schools to develop individuals capable of re-defining purposes and values.

Should any members of the panel disagree with such a platform, as they have a perfect right to do, it would be helpful before presenting their remarks to point to the exceptions they wish to make. It would be helpful if, in presenting any particular phase of curricular change, each individual member of the panel would indicate somewhere in his discussion comments regarding the following:

(1) Is the innovation or change capable of being justified in terms of "good education" upon a long-term basis?

(2) What basic reorganization of the total curriculum will be necessary to make for educational soundness and permanency?

(3) What ways of working within educational groups and with outside agencies will foster the continuance of desirable trends?

The panel members have varied interests. They are prepared to discuss many aspects of the curriculum. If they tend to be over-enthusiastic that their own field of interest will play a major role in post-war education, we shall, I am sure, lend a sympathetic ear.

Curriculum Changes Implied in a New Belief in the Common Man: A Brief

BY JEROME KUDERNA

Professor of Education, Alabama Polytechnic Institute

The paramount challenge to post-war education in the United States is to come to grips with the fate of the common man. We need to reestablish and redefine our belief in the common man in the light of the present state of our knowledge of him and of his needs in relation to the democracy in which he finds his being. That is my main thesis. My interest in this thesis stems from my conviction that a School of Education in a land-grant college, such as Alabama Polytechnic Institute, must share with it the *unique* function of rendering service to the common man above all else.

The fate of democracy is the fate of the common man. And the belief in the common man is the core of the democratic creed. The idea of a free people is inconceivable without it. Previous to the democratic era, common man was looked upon either as a ward to be taken care of or to be exploited for the greater glory of God, empire, or ruler. In contrast, although the English gentry provided the leadership in the Revolutionary War, the bulk of the "rebels" were the common men of all stocks. Now this faith, this ideal, suffered a calamitous set-back after World War I, a set-back from which it has not recovered. You will recall that the war was propagandized as the war "to make the world safe for democracy." The tragedy was not that we lost the peace, but rather in the bitter disillusionment, turning to the cynicism of the twenties and thirties, among our young people who had been brought up in an unquestioning acceptance of the democratic ideal.

Why did this happen? The difficulty, in part, was that we had a ritualistic, naïve, blind Fourth-of-July belief in the capacity of the common man to think and act for himself. This was the historic common man, which we inherited and accepted with typical American complacency. He was extolled and eulogized by Paine and Bentham and Walt Whitman in an excessive optimism which led them to the point of claiming the *infallibility* of the common man, indeed of each individual John Doe, on matters of any and all concern. This glorified, sentimental concept has been found wanting. We must explore a concept of the common man that will square, among others, with (1) the modern psychology of integrated personality, exploitation, and propaganda; (2) a science and technology that show promise of ushering in an economy of abundance, provided he be led to understand their social, but even more their *ethical*, implications; (3) and above all else, one that views his hopes and travail in the light of the Christian ethic. Perhaps this may point the way to a new emerging, *tempered* belief in the common man, defined as a "community of common men, operating by

common judgments upon matters of common concern," and delegating to the expert (under supervision) the concern with *exceptional tasks* until these will have become common property.

I should like to dwell for just a moment on the ethical aspect or component of this newer concept. The fate of the common man of democracy is bound up inextricably with the fate of the Christian ethic in which democracy has (or should we say, *had?*) its roots. None other than Thomas Mann restated this when he said that "democracy is the political expression of Christianity." The Nazis recognize this in their attempt to extirpate Christianity and substitute a neo-paganism. It is easy to refute a democracy and substitute a concept of a "master race" unless we consider all men as essentially spiritual beings and God their origin and end. The alternative is the state as God: modern man's golden calf.

I'm stressing this insistence on the Christian ethic because in our schools and in the society which they reflect, we have tried the pragmatic approach, and we have tried the humanistic approach, and where are we? In a study I've been making of the pronouncements of frontier contemporary thinkers, I have been amazed at the consensus that ours is a *moral* and *spiritual* crisis rather than merely an economic and political one. A similar study of recent books by professional educators showed a much smaller concern. May it not be that even our educators are the victims of a cumulative oversecularization of our schools—an increasing materialistic, utilitarian, rationalistic *bias* which secularization has given the school, inadvertently to be sure, but inexorably just the same? Hence our education, cast in this frame of ethical illiteracy, lacks spiritual significance; and so, on the one hand, our programs of social action lack the ethical dimension essential to their fullest functioning through democratic channels; on the other, our secularization of education has cultivated, as an unintentional by-product, an aggressiveness and shrewdness devoted to self-aggrandizement, not to the common good! At its worst, it has abetted the rise to power of willful men, with no understanding of moral and spiritual values basic to human life, but with control of the means to propagandize and to exploit the common man.

My contention, then, is that evidence is at hand pointing to the urgency of a post-war effort deliberately to implement the Christian ethic as a dimension of our teaching for the purpose of developing an evolving standard of values—alongside of the pragmatism and humanism that have prevailed exclusively hitherto, and any other "ism" warranted in an education for freedom in a democracy of, by, and for the people. However, it must be recognized that there is always danger of a prejudiced approach to this controversial matter. There probably is no surer way of wrecking our public schools on the shoals of sectarian bickering than by introducing religious instruction as such; yet, on the other hand, I would contend that there is

no surer way of wrecking our democracy than by continuing our present palsied policy and practice of divorcement of the Christian ethic from our public school education.

In conclusion, whatever may be the final outcome of the issue, there exists sufficient justification for an attempt to explore this new belief in the common man to fit the post-war scene. And a defensible spearhead can be shown to consist of an *integrated* approach through psychology, science, and technology, and the Christian ethic.

Curricular Changes After the War

By F. C. GRISE

Dean, Western Kentucky State Teachers College, Bowling Green

In my opinion the post-war changes will not be as great or as revolutionary as some of our present day prophets, soothsayers, and crystal gazers would have us believe. I do not believe that *everything* will be different. Moreover, in my judgment the changes which will come following the war period will be primarily material rather than human. In that "new" age of which we are hearing so much these days, many *things* certainly will be different—just how different we do not definitely know for we cannot blueprint in advance the details of the conditions which the approaching age will bring; but there is one thing we do know: man will be fundamentally the same. He will continue to be a composite unit with a body to be developed, a mind to be trained, and a soul to be saved. In this fundamental nature of man, we have something which we may regard as permanent and abiding, a basis on which we may predicate our educational planning for the future.

It would seem then that the chief concern of education not only in the "new" age but in *every* age must be the developing of men—men who really understand the nature and possibilities of mankind; who have an intelligent appreciation of the democratic way of living; who have a passion for liberty and freedom; who see modern social, economic, and spiritual life in a setting that is international and world-wide in its significance; who think and plan and pray in world terms and who are able and willing to assume a large share of the responsibility of preserving and perpetuating the best that has been thought, said, and done in the world. The attainment of this goal is in my judgment the *first* task of the "new" education.

In the achievement of the primary purpose, in the realization of the principal objective of the "new" education, there are certain things that men must know. They must know, understand, and appreciate the physical world in which they live, the world of human beings, and the world of self.

These are the only areas with which education can be concerned. These areas or worlds must be the basis of the "new" curriculum or any curriculum. These are some of the principles which I think we should keep in mind as we plan for possible changes in courses, methods, and procedures in connection with the curricular revisions which we think will be necessary to meet the needs of the so-called "new" age just ahead.

Post-War College and University Library Service in the Southeast Region

BY A. F. KUHLMAN

Director, Joint University Libraries, Nashville, Tennessee

It is difficult at this time to discuss the post-war problems and opportunities of college and university libraries because much depends upon how long the war continues and what conditions will be when it is over. At the present moment there are many unknowns in higher education. We do know that there has been a great deal of criticism of the liberal arts college during the two decades that preceded the war. There is an excellent summary of the chief difficulties presenting themselves in the curricula and the work of these institutions in Chen's *Developing Patterns of the College Curriculum in the United States*.¹ He calls attention to six problems, all of which have definite library implications: (1) the curriculum of many colleges lacks design, i.e., clearly conceived objectives; (2) in many institutions it has grown up by accretion and is therefore discrete and lacking in unity and meaning; (3) achievement of students is measured in credit hours rather than in terms of mastery of subject matter; (4) the level of intellectual life of the colleges is too low; (5) the individual is ignored in mass education methods, and (6) the curriculum and college life are too artificial and too divorced from vital problems of living.

The college library is a service agency of the institutions under fire. If the college curriculum and its teaching program lack vitality, this will be reflected in the library resources and services. The two are inseparable, but fortunately amenable to improvement.

This growing awareness of the inadequacy of colleges and universities has been intensified by our war experience. The war gave us a terrific jolt. The Army and Navy both found that the technical training of our college men—especially in mathematics—was inadequate for their specialized technical services. They also found that many college men were unfit as officer material because they could not understand or give orders effectively. They lacked one of the most fundamental prerequisites of a higher education—the ability to use the English language.

¹Theodore Hsi-En Chen, *Developing Patterns of the College Curriculum in the United States*. Los Angeles, University of Southern California press, 1940.

Now that is a part of the dark side of the picture. On the other side there has been much study and experimentation to find out how higher education can be improved. Chen, in the volume referred to above, outlines some of the significant improvements which have been underway in recent years. Here in the South the Southern Association has held two Work Conferences to study the improvement of the curriculum and the work of our colleges. The first was held in the summer of 1941 and the second in the summer of 1942. Librarians were included in the second conference, and an excellent statement was incorporated in the final report of the conference with reference to the place of the library in the college program. At present there are other workshops underway. This week, July 24-29, a group of college administrators and faculty members representing Southern colleges are in a week's work conference at the Joint University Library to study the improvement of the humanities in the work of our colleges and universities. Similar work conferences have been set up in the social sciences at the University of North Carolina and in the natural sciences at the University of Georgia. Still another conference on the improvement of teacher education is under discussion. Tomorrow representatives of Tennessee colleges will meet in Nashville to discuss the improvement of post-war higher education. This is all to the good.

In this discussion I should like to emphasize several problems that present themselves in college and university library work in the southeast region of the United States. They no doubt are present in different degrees in other regions also. Some of these problems existed before the war. Others have been aggravated by war conditions.

INADEQUATE FINANCIAL SUPPORT

The first problem that confronts us in considering the college library in the Southeast is the inadequacy of financial support for library purposes in so many of our institutions. In the last published *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States 1938-40*² fairly detailed statistics are included on college and university library expenditures for the academic year 1939-40. Data are included for 100 privately supported colleges and universities in the eleven Southeastern states. They show that the median expenditure in this group for all library purposes was only \$4,764.50. Expenditures for the twenty-five institutions in the lowest quarter ranged from a low of only \$495 to a high of \$2,515, the average in this group being only \$1,672.04. In the second quarter the lowest institution spent \$2,541 for library purposes and the highest \$4,728, the average expenditure being \$3,776.72.

While size of book collections has little meaning apart from a knowledge of their quality and suitability for instruction, nevertheless, judged purely

² U. S. Office of education, *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1938-40*. Washington, Government printing office, 1943. Vol. II, Chap. VI.

on a quantitative basis, these are inadequate in many of our institutions. In the 100 institutions studied, the median collection totals only 18,935 volumes. In the lowest quarter the range is from a low of 2,700 volumes to a high of 13,469, the average being 10,408 volumes. In the second quarter the smallest library includes 14,153 and the largest 18,802, the average being 16,033 volumes.

For thirty teachers colleges reporting, finances and book collections are somewhat better. The median expenditure in this group was \$7,857 for the year in question. In the lowest quarter expenditures ranged from \$1,290 to \$4,852, the average being \$2,880.37. In the second quarter expenditures ranged from a low of \$5,428 to \$7,571, the average in the group being \$6,397.12. The median for the book collections in the teachers colleges was 23,747 volumes. In the lowest quarter collections ranged from 2,170 to 14,574 volumes with an average of 9,704 volumes. In the second quarter collections ranged from 17,945 to 23,475, the average being 21,621 volumes.

The most serious condition prevails in the junior colleges. Eighty-four schools reported. In them the median expenditure for all library purposes was only \$1,954. In the lowest quarter expenditures ranged from \$160 to \$965—the average being only \$550 in this group. In the second quarter expenditures ranged from \$1,012 to \$1,953, the average being \$1,519.04. The size of the median book collection in this group of eighty-four junior colleges was 6,243 volumes. Collections ranged from 1,635 volumes to 4,719 volumes in the lowest quarter, the average being 3,707 volumes. In the second quarter the collections ranged from 4,878 volumes to 6,092, the average being 5,604.

It requires no argument to prove that the expenditures for college libraries in the lower half of each of these three groups of institutions are so inadequate that the instructional work must be seriously impaired.

There is no simple solution for this problem of inadequate expenditures for library purposes. In many institutions the library situation merely reflects the total picture of inadequacy. It will be noted that many of these institutions are not accredited at present. But, that does not solve the problem—the schools still operate and cannot do justice to their students. In many of the institutions the administration could and should do better by the library, but this will require education, pressure, and guidance from accrediting agencies. Of the 100 colleges and universities included, 47 were not accredited. Their registration totaled 18,277 in 1939-40, an average of 389 students per school. Of the teachers colleges, fourteen were not accredited. Their registrations totaled 7,810, an average of 558. Forty-eight of the junior colleges were not accredited. Their total enrollment for the year was 8,596, or an average of 179 per school.

INADEQUACY OF USE OF COLLEGE LIBRARIES

A second problem in the foreground in the discussions of college librarians when the war broke out was that many college libraries were not being used sufficiently to justify the large expenditures that had been and were being made for them. Under the stimulus of the accrediting agencies, progress in the disciplines, greatly increased book production, and the leadership of the Carnegie Corporation which contributed \$1,609,000 to 235 liberal arts, junior, teachers, and Negro colleges between 1929 and 1941 for the improvement of book collections, many institutions have learned to spend more money for their libraries and have improved their collections. For some time, however, librarians and college administrators and many faculty men, who are interested in vitalizing college instruction through carefully planned and intensive use of library materials, have been aware of the fact that these libraries are not used as much as they should be. Moreover, since 1920 there has been great competition among colleges in the construction of larger and better library buildings and in building up larger collections which are not used as they should be in the instructional and recreational program of students and faculty.

The officers of the Association of American Colleges became aware of this problem about a decade ago and in 1937 organized a study of college library usage, made possible by a grant from the Carnegie Corporation. The study was made by Dr. Harvie Branscomb, then Director of Libraries of Duke University. It resulted in a 239-page volume entitled *Teaching With Books*.³ Dr. Branscomb found, among other things, that during the past twenty-five years college libraries and faculties have placed more emphasis upon the acquisition and preservation of library materials than upon their use. The problem of college libraries is that of securing a sufficient use of their enlarged resources to justify the investment that has been and is being put into them. He presents data which indicate that in many colleges from 20 to 30 per cent of the students make no use whatever of the library during their college career, and that another 20 to 30 per cent make only a negligible use. He concluded that "college faculties are making only a very limited use of the library in their teaching work. In a number of colleges there seem to be better libraries than are needed. . . . In spite of all its growth the library has not been fully integrated into the major program of the college. This is as true from the faculty side as from that of the library itself."⁴

Obviously, the problem of increasing and improving the quality of library usage by students is primarily the responsibility of the college administration and faculty, and secondarily the responsibility of the college library staff. But it is a problem on which there should be the closest cooperation between the two groups. There is ample evidence to show that if a college adminis-

³ Harvie Branscomb, *Teaching with books*. Chicago, A.L.A., 1940.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 37.

tration and faculty deliberately set about to redefine their objectives and if this is done in terms of a vital curriculum and teaching methods that make heavy use of library materials, then there is a setting in which both the faculty and the library staff can work so as to achieve greater and better usage of library materials in the instructional program.

On the library side, the librarian and his staff can institute a number of measures to improve the role of the library in instruction: (1) funds can be made available in each subject and the faculty can be encouraged to select those books which will be useful in instruction; (2) these materials should be organized so as to make them as accessible as possible; (3) the circulation staff can report to each instructor at regular intervals the actual use of each title on reserve, and thus enable him to determine whether his chosen titles really function educationally, and (4) the reference librarian can work closely with the faculty in teaching students how to use the library to better advantage in individual and class work.

THE COLLEGE LIBRARY AS AN INSTRUMENT OF INSTRUCTION

Third, Dr. Branscomb and other competent students of college and university library problems have stressed one aspect of the problem of greater library usage that deserves attention here. They have called attention to the fact that too many college and university librarians have been well prepared technically from the standpoint of the housekeeping aspects of college librarianship, and inadequately prepared academically and educationally. Branscomb has said: "The professional librarians, equipped with specific training rather than general scholarship, were not qualified to take an active part in the discussion or execution of the educational program, and too often were given little opportunity to develop interests and capacities in this direction. A division of function was established which is still regulative: librarians were responsible for the care of books and faculty members for their use. . . . This division of function has been particularly unfortunate from the standpoint of the library staff, for it has tended to reduce their status to that of administrators, technicians, and clerks. Librarians have invariably rebelled at the situation, but the present program seems to offer little means of escape. It will not be until librarians begin to concern themselves with the effectiveness of the educational program that they will take their place as true colleagues of the teaching members of the college faculty. . . . The program of the library and that of the faculty have not been a unit. There has been lacking a sense of common purpose and, consequently, attention to the problem of the most effective coordination of effort.

"Librarians are aware of this lack of integration, though the aspects of it which loom largest are, naturally enough, the difference in status and rank between members of the faculty on the one hand and the library staff on the other. They would like to see the 'gap,' as it is often called, bridged,

and would go to almost any lengths toward that end. The matter, however, is not one merely of good-will. It involves certain administrative steps directed toward uniting the efforts of instructors and librarians so that the educational program will function as a single unit."⁵

Another problem disclosed by the studies of Dr. Branscomb and other competent students of college library usage is the lack of correlation between books borrowed and grades received by students. After reviewing the data relative to this problem Dr. Branscomb concluded "that the library is a stage removed from the vital center of the work of teaching. . . . A large number of teachers apparently could get along very well without extensive libraries, at least for the greater number of their students. . . . From the use made of them in undergraduate teaching, the case could be made that many colleges have better libraries than they need. . . . The fact which confronts one is that the library is not functioning in close and vital connection with the teaching program."⁶

IMPROVEMENT OF COLLEGE LIBRARY PERSONNEL

Fourth, if the college library is to become an instrument of instruction, there are at least two aspects of the present college library personnel problem which should be examined. First of all, since the beginning of the war many librarians who had training and experience in the college library field have left the service to go into various forms of war work and related services. There is at present a great shortage of persons available for college library work. Many positions are vacant at present, in fact, have been vacant for more than a year. As the war continues this situation will grow worse. Also, there is no assurance that these men and women who have left the college library field will return to it. All of this means that at the close of the war, or even at present, there should be an active program to recruit for the college and university library field such men and women as are suited by training, experience, and personality for the work.

A second aspect of the college library personnel problem deserves stress; and that is, in the training and education of college and university librarians, greater emphasis needs to be placed upon more adequate academic preparation in the future. Ideally, college and university librarians should first of all have a broad general education such as is represented by the New Plan at the University of Chicago which seeks to give students by the end of their sophomore year in college a broad orientation in the four major fields of learning—the social sciences, the humanities, the biological sciences, and the physical sciences. Second, this should be followed not by narrow specialization in a single subject and by supplementing such specialization with a series of unrelated and meaningless electives, but should be followed by a

⁵ *Ibid.*, p. 6, 7-8, 196.

⁶ *Ibid.*, p. 52-53.

thorough orientation in one of the four broad divisions of subjects mentioned above. Since the general library of most colleges and universities is primarily concerned with the building up and use of collections in the social sciences and humanities, one might well raise the question as to whether college and university librarians should not major in say the social sciences and minor in the humanities, or vice versa. In the laboratory subjects, such as we have in the physical and biological sciences, certainly on the college level, the work consists primarily of the mastery of a textbook and of intensive work in the laboratory under the guidance of the instructor.

Beyond the Bachelor's degree it is clear that competent leadership in the college and university library field now calls for advanced academic education in addition to education and training on the graduate level in library science. In recent years many college and university presidents have insisted on a librarian or director of libraries with a Ph.D. degree. One could make out an almost equally good case for advanced education for other members of the staff, certainly for the reference librarian and those who are going to catalog and organize the material for use. This presupposes that at least the second and third year's work be offered in more of the library schools, and in such work the major should undoubtedly be in a broad academic division, rather than in library science.

INADEQUATE UNIVERSITY BOOK COLLECTIONS

The fifth problem I want to present is that of inadequate university book collections. The development of the nineteen largest university libraries in the Southeast has taken place in the last quarter of a century. In 1917 the average size of these libraries was 50,000 volumes. Last July 1 it was 312,000 volumes. In 1917 the University of Virginia led with 80,000 volumes and North Carolina followed with 79,000. On June 30, 1943, Duke was leading the university libraries in the Southeast with 681,000 volumes. North Carolina followed with 434,000, the Joint University Libraries with 424,000 and Virginia with 405,000 volumes. Then followed Tulane, Louisiana, and Kentucky with collections ranging from 337 to 389 thousand volumes and five universities with collections ranging from 217 to 278 thousand volumes. This is encouraging and fine, but inadequate. Examine the record, and where does the Southeast stand? Duke ranks sixteenth among the great university libraries of America. Then follows North Carolina, ranking thirty-third; the Joint University Libraries, thirty-fourth, Virginia, thirty-fifth, etc. Excluding Duke University Library, the fifteen largest university libraries of the southeast region combined have fewer volumes than Harvard. Of the twenty-seven university libraries with more than a half million volumes, only one—Duke—is in the Southeastern region.

A large load of graduate work was being carried in the Southeast at the outbreak of the war. This is as it should be. We should train our best

talent in the South where it can deal in a first-hand manner with our southern problems and opportunities. Moreover, if we do this, the chances are better that our ablest leaders will remain here to make their contribution.

We should, however, bear in mind that the strengthening of library resources is a prerequisite of real university as well as graduate work in the Southeast. Many institutions in this region are doing graduate work in subjects in which their books collections are not adequate, even for undergraduate teaching. In fact, measured by library resources, there is not now a single university of first rank in our region. This needs correction. Something can be gained through cooperation among neighboring institutions on the library level, but it is not a substitute for building great and competent collections such as are found at our Northern and Eastern graduate schools. Through regional union catalogs, inter-library loans, and microphotography, the resources of a given institution can be enhanced, but unless the book resources of our Southern university centers are greatly strengthened they cannot do justice to graduate and research work.

LEADERSHIP FOR UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES

Sixth, equally important as adequate university collections for graduate and research work, is library leadership on the graduate and research levels. Our university library collections in the Southeast have gradually and almost imperceptibly been pushed forward from undergraduate instructional collections into graduate and research collections; but in too many instances there has not been provided an adequately trained and experienced library staff. Here and there we have competent librarians who have grown up with these collections and who have worked closely and effectively with the faculty in acquisition and reference activities. They are on a par with their collections in their ability to appraise them, to interpret them, and to make them available for use. The fact remains, however, that in nearly every university center of the Southeast there is a most urgent need for library leadership in one or more of the following departments: in the directorship, in reference, and in cataloging on the level of graduate and research work. In acquisition work, because of faculty assistance in book selection, the need for librarians is less acute.

University librarians and university administrators need to do something about this urgent need. Competent talent must be found, and through inservice education and training or leaves for advanced study on a stipend we must develop university library leadership on the instructional, graduate, and research levels. Loss from the service of college and university libraries of many young and promising persons since the beginning of the war greatly aggravates but is not itself the real problem. The real problem has arisen as a result of: (1) advance in the scientific methods in research in all fields in the last twenty-five years; (2) changes in methods of instruction;

and (3) the emergence of university book collections above a quarter of a million volumes calls for a new type of librarian in the university library, certainly in the executive and administrative work, in reference, and in cataloging.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LIBRARY SCHOOLS

Seventh, this discussion has many implications for library schools. The day is past when one year's training in technical library school subjects added to the academic education represented by a Bachelor's degree is sufficient preparation for the educational and research functions that college and university libraries should assume. The pressing question is what kind of degree represents the best preparation for college and university library work. This is not an academic question. It is the outgrowth of an urgent need to reorganize library school curricula and to provide for second and third year education and training of prospective college and university librarians. It is to be hoped that within the next five years we shall witness a transformation of the education and training for library service to put it on a par with comparable professional training in other fields and to develop a personnel commensurate with the educational and research opportunities which present themselves in higher education.

Post-War School Library Service

BY SUE HEFLEY

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School library service exists as a part of the whole educational pattern, and post-war school library service will take its form and direction from post-war education. An examination of proposals for and predictions of post-war education must precede any formulation of proposals for or predictions of a pattern for post-war school library service.

According to the *Twentieth Century Fund's Organization Directory*, No. 2, 1943, some seven agencies were then planning on a national scale and continuously rather than occasionally, for education after the war. Remove the restrictive "national scale" and "continuous planning," and the list of agencies which have evidenced interest in planning for education in the future could be multiplied many times.

Even a sampling of the currently available plans-in-print for post-war education issued by these agencies yields a basis for prediction of its probable pattern. Apparently post-war education may be expected to include:

1. An equalization of educational opportunities, so that a desirable minimum program will be available to all;
2. An expansion to provide education for the very young (now identified as the pre-school age) and for adults, with consequent expansion

of the school day into the evening hours and of the school year into the summer months;

3. An individualization of educational offerings, to provide maximum development of the student;

4. A flexibility of curriculum to fit the needs of the mentally and physically exceptional student;

5. Provision for vocational guidance;

6. Emphasis on education in citizenship, in health, and in the art of being a wise consumer;

7. Identification of the school with the community, with a logical integration of related services;

8. Observance of democratic procedure in the development of administrative and instructional programs;

9. Employment of that unit for educational administration which will make for maximum administrative efficiency.

There are implications for library service within the educational pattern thus set. Equalization of educational opportunities mean equalization of budgets for the acquisition of instructional and developmental materials. An expansion of education into new age groups implies the acquisition of new instructional materials suitable to new users; expansion of the school day and of the school year implies new hours of service and a new working schedule for school librarians. An individualization of educational offerings and a flexibility of curriculum imply a wide variety of instructional materials covering a wide range of interests. New and increased emphases imply the acquisition of whole blocks of titles and materials in areas of instruction and areas of interest hitherto unrepresented in our school library collections.

Observance of democratic procedure in the development of educational programs will mean the merging of factors that are part of any school library program—pupils, teachers, administrators, librarians. Identification of the school with the community will be accompanied with a logical integration of related services and implies, among other things, an examination of possibilities in public library services to schools and in library service to adults within the scope of public education. Employment of that administrative unit of maximum efficiency in education will help to effect an equalization of educational opportunity and, incidentally, of service through the school library.

Currently available plans-in-print for education contain not only implications for school library service; they contain direct references to that service. In *Planning Schools for Tomorrow; the Issues Involved* (U. S. Office of Education, 1942) we read: "Too often an educational program is deficient because of the lack of essential equipment and materials. Not only books, magazines,

and laboratories, but also many other types of aids to learning, such as films, charts, maps, and globes, are essential for a good school. It should be realized that instructional materials are essential in all phases of an educational program. Too frequently some particular division or branch of the educational program enjoys relatively adequate instructional materials while another division or branch is well-nigh without needed materials." In *Proposals for Public Education in Post-War America* (National Education Association, 1944) we read, as recommendation No. 4 for local action: "Increase greatly the amount, variety, and quality of instructional equipment, including books, magazines, audio-visual aids." Recommendation No. 13 for state action, in the same publication, states: "Provide a state service for the loan of films, library books, museum exhibits, and other teacher aids to small rural schools which cannot otherwise obtain adequate collections of materials." While these three statements are generalities, they do constitute stout pegs upon which can be hung the specifics of planning for school library service, for once a wealth of books and other instructional and developmental materials is admitted, organization of those materials for maximum use by a maximum number of users must follow, and school library service is the medium of such organization.

While it is logical to look for specifics of planning for school library service from some source other than those which are concerned with total education, some specifics are noted even in printed plans of the agencies planning for general education. In *Proposals for Public Education in Post-War America* we find, "At each age level from six to sixteen, teaching, counseling, and library service together should be provided at the rate of one trained staff member for every twenty-five pupils." In the same source we find a recommendation, in tabular form, for the increase of the annual expenditure for library books from \$5,100,000, the 1939-40 expenditure, to an annual expenditure of \$28,400,000 for the 1945-55 decade. In the same source we find: "Every school librarian should know the requirements and the problems of classroom teaching and should have special competence in selecting, organizing, and interpreting printed materials and related audio-visual aids for a variety of school purposes." Other instances of the naming of specifics could be cited in publications of other agencies.

For the most nearly complete statement of the details of planning for school libraries we may well expect to turn to the work of the Post-war Planning Committee of the Division of Libraries for Children and Young People,* under the chairmanship of Mrs. Mary Peacock Douglas, School Libraries Adviser with the Department of Education for North Carolina. The report of this committee is being formulated at the present time and can be expected to deal with book stock, square-feet of room space per pupil, expenditure per pupil, training for the librarian and for the teacher-librarian,

* American Library Association.

as well as with the philosophy of school library service. If the recommendations of the committee are sound, and we believe they can be relied upon to be sound, we may hope to see them embodied in standards of accrediting agencies and in various recommended patterns for school library development.

With all of this planning for post-war education and post-war school library, can discussion from groups such as this panel have any meaning? No present plan is a finished and accepted thing, and no plan lives until it is put into practice. School library service is a continuing service; there will be no sharp line between school libraries today and school libraries tomorrow. No real service can be superimposed upon those who are in the last analysis responsible for that service. The work of state planning boards and of local county or parish boards is still in many localities hardly begun. National and international plans are composites of the expressions of groups similar to this panel or they are reflections of practices for which the groups similar to those represented here are responsible. The effective plan for tomorrow's school library service is the plan that is the logical development from the practices and experiences of today.

Financing Public Education After the War

BY EDGAR L. MORPHET

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If the customary methods of financing the schools are followed after the war we can expect education to encounter more handicaps in the future than it has in the past. The following may be listed as all too common characteristics of school finance up to the present time:

1. On the state level many requests for funds have been based on what we hoped we could get, and have been supported by appeals to provide better opportunities for our children or to give our teachers a living wage. Moreover many groups have opposed requests for additional funds for schools or have proposed narrow millage limitations merely because they thought the schools had enough already. Certainly none of these procedures is very scientific.

2. On the local level sometimes budgets have been largely rough guesses with little attempt at accuracy, and many local school units have been small enough that costs are higher than they would be if the units could be reorganized.

3. On the Federal level we have become so confused over the issue of Federal control that we have refused to establish any system of general Federal aid for schools and in so doing have gotten ourselves into a position where we have brought on some of the undesirable controls we have sought to avoid.

If we are to overcome these handicaps and difficulties we must be realistic. We cannot expect adequate support for schools unless we can agree on what should constitute a satisfactory program of education.

One of the most important responsibilities which should be met by every state and local school system in the near future is that of defining what is considered an adequate program of education and translating that program into costs. Representatives of local school systems and lay organizations should participate in this process on a state-wide basis and a similar process should be carried out in every local school system in the state. Widespread participation tends to promote understanding and appreciation.

Probably the simplest and best way to determine the cost of a satisfactory program in each community and to determine the responsibility of the state for helping to support that program is to proceed as follows:

1. Determine the cost of an acceptable program by

- a. Finding out how much should be available to pay salaries of the desirable number of properly qualified teachers and other members of the instructional staff;
- b. Finding how much should be available to meet the cost of transportation by using a density-of-transported-population formula;
- c. Finding the amount needed for other current and operating expenses by multiplying the number of units for members of the instructional staff by a uniform percentage of the value of the instruction unit;
- d. Finding the amount needed for capital outlay and debt service by following the procedure outlined in (c) above, except using a smaller percentage; and
- e. Finding the total calculated cost of the program by adding (a), (b), (c), and (d) above.

2. Determine the funds available to meet the cost of the program by adding the amount of state funds apportioned to the local school system at present for any purpose to the calculated yield from a uniform local millage levy.

3. Find the funds needed by any school system by subtracting the funds available (2 above) from the cost of the program (1 above). It is essential that a plan be developed for determining the cost of and for supporting a comprehensive program of education, not just for one phase of the program such as teachers salaries. The State should not seek to control or operate this program but rather to establish minimum standards which are to be observed. It is essential that adequate tax leeway and local initiative be left to each school system if handicaps are to be avoided.

Federal, state, and local support should all be considered essential and desirable if properly administered. The amount of state support will be determined by the ability and need of the local school system. Federal support should be provided as general aid with the desirable safeguards or controls written into the law. The present system of undesirable controls resulting from a system of indirect and piece-meal aids administered by non-educational agencies could thus be avoided. Every effort should be made by educational leaders to assure that maximum value will be received from all educational expenditures. This will mean elimination of some of the smallest and most inefficient local school systems, employment of capable and properly qualified personnel for all positions, reorganization of small schools where possible to permit a larger number of pupils per teacher, and greater participation of the state in purchasing or promoting cooperative purchasing of materials and supplies.

Consideration should be given to the establishment of reasonable capital outlay reserves. At present all capital outlay and maintenance has been severely restricted. In a few years needs that must be met, including the need for new buses, will be greater than ever. Provision for the development of limited reserves now when people are in good position to pay taxes should help to put school systems in position to meet these needs and to carry out a larger proportion of its projects on a "pay-as-you-go" basis.

A liberal state equalization fund should be provided in every state to assist local school systems with limited wealth. At the same time adequate provision should be made for safeguarding local initiative.

In many communities in the South it is obvious that we are not now spending enough to provide an adequate educational program. More funds from state, Federal, and local sources can and will be made available if we plan properly and provide evidence to show the need.

Financing Education After the War

BY C. E. MYERS

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I assume we are interested in the application of knowledge to improve education, and in promoting ideas, rather than in creating publicity to advance generally accepted popular solutions. Hence, I speak as a professional student and I represent no organization, group, or other person.

My studies lead me to emphasize a better use of the money now available rather than to emphasize the need for "more money." I am convinced that we now know how to secure the educational results now achieved in greater quantity and of better quality, under much better working conditions with less money than we now spend. I am convinced that resource-

fulness, ingenuity, and understanding in the use of present knowledge is the best and surest way to advance true education. In fact, I fear that more money without better organization or plans than are now in sight may slow up the use of professional knowledge and possibly lower the quality of education for years to come.

As a background for my emphasis in this panel upon the financial effect of term length and class size, I shall react in a sentence or two to some of the questions raised in the program:

1. *Federal Aid and Equalization Among the States.* Education is now more of a Federal than a state problem; hence the Federal government should support and control education. If each state buys all the tobacco and liquor its people want, some of the states may not have sufficient money left to support education.

2. *What Goals for Teachers' Salaries?* Teachers' salaries should be high enough (a) to attract the type of person we want to enter the teaching profession; (b) to retain every good teacher in so far as salary is the determining factor within the range of government salaries for capable professional workers. A reasonable expectation of a \$3,600 salary might make a beginning salary of \$900 adequate, while a final salary of \$1,800 may demand a beginning salary of \$1,200 or even \$1,500.

Unless salaries are scaled according to merit—the quantity and quality of service rendered—the issue is essentially a political one of no great concern to the profession, except as our profession ought to refuse to employ poorly qualified teachers at sweat-shop wages. There is one thing worse than an empty classroom, and that is a full classroom with a poor teacher. The number of teachers should not be determined by the number of classrooms that can be filled with pupils but by the number of capable teachers who can be employed with the money available. With present funds an average salary of \$3,000 to \$3,600 is obtainable.

3. *Per Cent of National Income We Should Demand for Education.* I do not think we have a reasonable right as a profession to demand any portion of the national income for public education. Our job is to use the portion committed to us to cause the nation to want to spend what it takes to provide the educational services it needs. What we now have committed to us is a sufficient amount to begin a truly professional program.

4. *The Cost of An Adequate Program of Education.* The cost of an adequate program of education depends upon who defines "adequate" and who determines the practices by which the objectives are attained or sought. For example, the present amount, whatever it is, would appeal to me as an adequate beginning, while some would want at least \$100 per year per pupil. If we want our present set-up in its present form, I expect \$100 a year per

pupil is a reasonable estimate for what the average school superintendent would call "adequate."

5. *Predictions as to Local, State, and Federal Support.* Predictions have two bases: first, facts or the projections of past trends; second, hope, or a vision of what ought to be. In this, past trends as to proportion of local, state, and Federal support of schools are in the direction of a vision of what ought to be. Our tax systems appear to make greater centralization of support desirable and necessary.

6. *What Type of State Equalization?* I sincerely trust that professional vision rather than past trends will dominate state equalization of education in the future. We should equalize the quantity and the quality of needed educational service rather than equalize dollars. Equalizing dollars spent is going at the problem backwards. I am not impressed with the New York findings that dollars spent rate the worth of an educational program.

The vision of state equalization which I hope will be accepted has been in the making in Virginia from the beginning of public schools. If the State will completely finance an acceptable minimum program of instruction—salaries of teachers and supervisors and consumable instructional material or tools of learning—so any child, youth, or adult anywhere will have an equal opportunity to secure as high a quality of the instruction he needs as any other person; then, I think the essential educational equalization has been accomplished.

Any locality should be encouraged to attain as high standards of elegant living as its economy can maintain in a Christian democratic society. Hence, I favor state or Federal loans for capital outlay on reasonable terms, but the "log" in education is less likely to abuse as a pole shack than it is as a marble palace. The one may be as conducive to good education as the other when we supply the other two elements of a good school, namely, a pupil and a *good* teacher. The assumption here is that, given a good teacher under capable supervision and the consumable materials or tools of learning, any locality can supply the material and mechanical facilities for an acceptable educational program, especially when a loan of needed funds is available on a sound economic basis.

Making present funds for education adequate for salaries two or three times higher than we now pay (and for several important services not now rendered or indifferently executed) is a problem in finding and holding on to basic and essential educational elements and in resourcefulness. For example, in one state one teacher employed for 288 days (48 weeks) teaching the same sized groups the same hours can give 230 per cent more pupil days instruction than was given in 1942-43. That state is no exception in this respect. If we would teach classes of forty pupils instead of twenty-five on that basis that state could now pay an average salary of \$3,600 a year.

In addition to the all-year school and class size, major readjustments in the use of present funds which give promise of improving the quality of our educational effort include (1) public ownership and operation of school transportation; (2) employment of instructors to teach instead of employing servants to wait upon pupils—I refer to janitors, mechanics, bus drivers, office clerks, and cooks; (3) providing free textbooks and consumable instructional materials and tools; (4) elimination of re-teaching (repeating) through curricular offerings and good teaching; (5) elimination of deadening and expensive specialization in school organization and teaching.

A Plan for National Security Aid

BY C. A. McCANLESS

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It must be assumed here that some form of Federal aid to education is necessary in order that an adequate educational program may be guaranteed throughout every region and state in the nation.

Support for education can never be adequate unless we are willing to share the common destiny of other necessary state functions which must be constructed upon an over-all cooperative plan for the development of the human and material resources of the region in which the state is located.

The necessary Federal funds to equalize educational opportunities to an adequate degree throughout the nation, can, and must, be provided without Federal control. This can be accomplished through the inauguration of a *gradual* plan for Federal equalization of the financial ability of the states to pay for the costs of all necessary state services performed in such fields as planning, education, agriculture, conservation, health, highways, welfare, and social security. This plan, on account of its wide scope and general contribution to the security of the entire nation, is being designated as, "A Plan for National Security Aid." Under such a plan Federal funds would be apportioned directly to state governments on the basis of their need, ability, and effort. For all practical purposes, the Federal aid would be a new source of state revenue, to be appropriated (along with other state revenues) by the state legislature to the several state governmental agencies. The plan would necessarily include proper safeguards to protect each necessary state agency from being discriminated against in the matter of the funds appropriated to it. The plan would also safeguard funds from loss and mismanagement. However, the Federal Government would hold the state governments responsible for an accounting to the Federal Government; whereas, a state government would hold its own state agencies re-

sponsible for an accounting to the state government. Under this plan, Federal control would not bear on a given state agency, as, for example, a State Department of Education, any more than beverage retail control would bear on a State Department of Education, merely because a part of its school funds happened to be derived from a beverage tax.

The whole plan under consideration grows out of the realization that lack of ability to support education adequately in a given state, also means lack of ability to support the other necessary agencies of the state government. The plan also grows out of the quest for ways and means to secure needed Federal aid without Federal control.

As a preliminary step to the inauguration of such a plan, each state should examine its several agencies for the purpose of eliminating duplication of services, all kinds of waste, and every form of bad business management.

The inauguration of this plan would mean that funds appropriated for education, for example, will flow through regularly constituted educational channels. It will also mean coordination of effort, with the elimination of waste. As a by-product, the savings from waste and the elimination of non-school channeling should increase the amount of funds available for coordinated and well-planned educational expenditures. The same should be true for funds of the other necessary agencies of a state government.

The inauguration of this plan should certainly be preceded by coordinated, long-time state and national research and planning in the fields of economics, government, and education. In its operation, it is believed that this plan will serve as one of the economic balances which will be needed in the post-war economic structure of the nation, involving stabilization through public spending programs. For example, both highway and school building construction can readily become a part of the public spending program, without Federal control. It is reasonable to expect that the economic condition of the poorer regions of the nation could be so improved by the utilization of this plan, that, after a few decades, further Federal aid might become unnecessary.

This plan for *national security aid* is new; it may, therefore, clash with preconceived notions. But, it is believed that the plan is sound, logical, and practicable on a national scale, and will, if properly applied, make a genuine contribution to the progress of the whole nation.

Summary of the Conference on Post-War Education

BY THEO DALTON *

Principal, Elon College School, Elon, North Carolina

The Curriculum Conference at George Peabody College for Teachers was held on July 26 and 27 under the trees of the lower campus. This conference is an annual event which is conducted by the Division of Surveys and Field Studies and brings to the campus many visitors. The general theme of the 1944 session was "Post-War Education." This theme is in keeping with the thinking of the many planning groups who are charting the course of human welfare after victory.

THE FIRST GENERAL MEETING

The first general meeting opened with prayer by Dr. L. W. Crawford, Professor of English and Religious Education at Peabody College. The theme of this meeting was "Living After the War." Dean J. J. Oppenheimer of the University of Louisville presided. After appropriate remarks regarding changes in living after the war and hopes for a better world, Dean Oppenheimer presented the first speaker of the morning, Dr. Gordon W. Blackwell, Director of Institute in Social Science at the University of North Carolina.

Dr. Blackwell began his address by pointing out that as we work to win the war we are establishing the framework of post-war living. According to him both of these goals are challenges to the social sciences and education must play a big part in meeting the challenges. He said that there is more necessity for understanding of society on the part of teachers and school administrators. The many challenges to the social sciences and the educators are gainful employment for returned men, prevention of waste, provision for social security, skillful business management, and racial satisfactions.

Dr. Blackwell is sure that America must have a continuously planning society. In fact, he said that this is an era of regional planning, and he pointed out the differences in sectionalism and regionalism as being important factors to recognize. He quoted Dr. Howard Odum as saying that the South at its best means the complete utilization of natural and human resources. The point that what happens to resources determines what happens to people was adequately treated. The explanation that planning is a necessity and that the people must be in on the planning was well made. There must be constant planning, but institutional revolution must not be too sudden. The speaker said that social democracy in opposition to dicta-

* Group committee chairmen who helped to make this summary possible by covering and reporting the discussions were: Elmer Petree, Irene V. Brock, Clifton L. Hodges, Marie Haigwood, E. E. Harris, Elsie Sangren, Lucy Outlaw, and Harold Sims.

torship will be determined by recognition of the rights of labor and the rights of individuals. Education for democracy will depend on understanding society and willingness to face social and economic challenges. Dr. Blackwell voiced his opinion that there have been too many "ivory chair" programs. He feels that even up to the present time there has been too little planning for youth. According to him the welfare of American youth must be uppermost in the minds of any planning group if the outcome of the planning is to help care for the American problems of the future.

Dr. David A. Lockmiller, President of University of Chattanooga, was the second speaker on the opening program. His address began with the explanation that the post-war world is already here for 1,250,000 service men who have been returned. For those who are dead there will be no post-war world. To some it will come through a period of long transition, and we shall not always recognize the changes as they come. Many changes would have happened anyway and the world would have been different even though there had been no war. In connection with recalling histories of other post-war periods the speaker said, "The only escape from history is to control its course before the event in question comes to pass." He explained that no nation can live alone. True peace depends upon unity of purpose. Peace treaties and international associations are not automatic. In continuing the point that changes in living are inevitable, Dr. Lockmiller pointed out that modern warfare is unprofitable for the victors as well as the vanquished, that science may be a curse or a blessing depending upon man's use of it, that private industry must provide employment for the masses, that there must be a brotherhood of mankind, and that nationalism can be used for enlightened purposes. Furthermore, intellectual and religious freedom are essential; character is basic in individual, national, and international life.

The Chattanooga educator said, "Living after the war will give us an opportunity to rebuild much of America and, in so doing, we shall find that its destiny is inseparably linked with the rest of the world." Demobilization of 12,000,000 men will require two or more years. Taxes will remain high, for when the war ends the national debt will be around three billion dollars. After the war, he explained, there will be contest between big and little business. Organized labor will make an unwilling retreat with the end of the war boom. Also, we must not forget that returning veterans will have a controlling voice in the destiny of America for the next fifty years. World-wide air passenger and light-freight service will become commonplace. Dr. Lockmiller pointed out certain intangibles which have and will continue to result from the war. Among them are psychological dislocations, "cultural lag," adult and juvenile delinquency, war marriages, and increasing tempo of modern life. Indeed, man is to discipline himself if he is to continue his phenomenal control over the physical world.

In closing his address President Lockmiller said that there is much to be optimistic about. Adequately supported schools and colleges for children and adults will characterize the America of tomorrow. Religion will survive this war, even though in many actions it will be on the defensive. Although the world will be tired of barbarism and philosophies of aggression, it must not slump into indifference.

DISCUSSION GROUPS ON WEDNESDAY

The first discussion group on Wednesday afternoon centered its attention on "Rural Life After The War." Dean John E. Brewton presented members of the panel and the discussion leader, Dr. Daniel Russell, Head of Department of Rural Sociology, A. and M. College of Texas. According to him, neither economic nor social stability can exist after the war if the legislative and economic inequalities suffered by the farmers are perpetuated.

The panel agreed that the standards of rural life after the war would, to a great extent, depend upon the type of farming. The three major types discussed were corporation farming, cooperative farming, and individual small farming. The advantages and disadvantages of each type were set forth and discussed by the panel and the audience. It was brought out that in all rural situations land is the basic thing. The wastage of the land is an ever present and serious problem. No matter what type of farming is engaged in, there must be a more intelligent use of the land. Statistics show that more money is spent in the South on fertilizer per year than on public education.

Another important point was that standards of living in rural areas must be improved if we expect the young people on the farm to look forward to a satisfactory future. We must educate for better living on the farm rather than to educate our youth away from the farm. REA has played an important and impressive role in raising standards of living in rural areas. According to Dora B. Haines from the Washington Office of REA there must be a combination of farm and industrial income before the problem is solved. She pointed out that Sweden, through the combination plan, has reached third place in per capita income.

Freer world trade and better distribution of farm commodities seems necessary if the farmers after the war are to benefit from increased production. Several members of the panel pointed out that there must be an accessible market for our surplus commodities before we can do much at equalizing the situation. It was agreed that planning for the post-war world is essential, but that the masses must have some voice in the planning since they are the ones who are to live by the plans.

The second discussion group used "Health and Medical Services after the War" as its topic of discussion. Dr. W. Morrison McCall acted as chairman and after presenting members of the panel introduced the discussion

leader, Dorothy Nyswander, Health Education Specialist, Division of Education, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Washington, D.C. She began her remarks by pointing out that it takes more than things to create a good life for people. Intelligent understanding and self-direction are necessary if things are to be used for positive purposes. The discussion leader suggested five necessary keys to open the door to a healthier, stronger, more productive America of tomorrow: more adequate research work; expanded public health services; provision for distributing medical, dental, nursing, and technical health services; intensive education of teachers in the socio-economic community structure; revitalization of education for health and home making in our schools to the end that students are prepared for family and community life. Interesting experiments in proving that diet is a factor in susceptibility to some diseases were reported. Comments on beautiful school buildings that house poor functional programs were made. The idea that child needs are fundamental and that the all-over picture must be a cooperative one was emphasized.

Dr. Lyon, Director of Hospitals, Frankfort, Kentucky, gave data which show that mental disorders are more prevalent than other diseases. He recommended a mental health program, such as Kentucky is using, emphasizing (1) a workable health program in all educational systems, (2) provision of state funds for a traveling personnel in mental hygiene, (3) making mental hygiene an integral part of health service, (4) establishing child guidance clinics, (5) provision of psychiatric service in juvenile courts, and (6) centers for mental health clinics in state mental hospitals.

The panel agreed that the scope of the health problem includes economics, medicine, education, sociological and experimental research, and facilities. Furthermore, the program must meet the needs of the people, and theory and practice must be brought together. There must be understanding of child growth and development. It costs less to guide in the prevention of disease than to cure.

"Industry and the Consumer after the War" was the theme which group number three used for an enthusiastic discussion. Dr. J. R. Whitaker introduced the panel members and called upon Dr. James E. Mendenhall, OPA Official, Washington, D. C. who declared that stabilizing our national economy is the major objective of the American people in their efforts to win the war on the home front and to assure a sound basis for transition to a prosperous post-war era. "There is the ever-present danger," Dr. Mendenhall pointed out, "that we at home will get the feeling that the war is already over, and will therefore relax our guards against skyrocketing prices and inequitable distribution of scarce essentials." He said that we should recognize that the war on inflation is only half-won. Because pressures on prices and price ceilings continue strong and increasing, we must hold firm our war-time economic controls.

The discussion developed around one big question: How can we get our money's worth? The first lead question was: How can we put the breaks on inflation after the war? The opinion that we cannot put the brakes on without controls was voiced. Some believed that the people would want controls to be continued until the danger is over. The urgent needs of educating the people to the necessity of temporary controls was emphasized. The proposition that the people be educated to invest their savings in productive enterprises and not in an inflationary stock market was suggested. The industrialists could be disappointed in the size of the tremendous market which they are expecting.

The second leading question was: How may we guard against hidden inflation in the form of inferior goods? "If a pair of shoes wear only half as long, then we are paying twice as much for footwear." It was agreed that standards of value are necessary. Members of the groups thought that OPA should be able to guard quality as well as price. OPA representatives on the panel said that the way to do it is to educate the consumers. It is up to the people but they need information. A member of the group expressed fear that the people and business will be so unwise as to demand overthrow of OPA and all similar control as soon as the war ends. Indeed, it seems that we have a big job of education that must be done well, and soon, in order to prevent such overthrow.

Dr. H. C. Brearley presided over the fourth discussion group, which discussed "Employment after the War." After presenting panel members, he directed the group to the thinking of Dr. Ernest J. Eberling, Professor of Economics at Vanderbilt University, who acted as discussion leader. He opened the discussion by proposing the questions: Can we as a nation maintain reasonably full employment after the war? Will jobs be available for every able-bodied man or woman who is seeking work in the job market at good rates of pay? For nearly four years now we have seen what we could do when our industrial machine was operated at our near capacity. There have been jobs for practically everyone; our national income has increased from 38 billion dollars in 1933 to 150 billion dollars in 1943, and, in spite of our unprecedented volume of war production, we have had plenty to eat and wear.

The facts that we now have a nation-wide unemployment compensation system with funds now exceeding five billion dollars and that we have a nation-wide system of public employment offices which will provide an orderly labor market after the war are important. Also, there will be a large demand for many consumers' goods after the war. The members of the panel were optimistic in their views. Industrial leaders pointed out their plans to absorb the unemployed and the returning service men in post-war industries. The period immediately following the war will be characterized by the tremendous consumer demand and increased buying power.

The implications of the G.I. bill on the employment problem were noted. The task of the community is to counsel the veteran to accept the educational program instead of the myriad job opportunities. The war has proved to industry the value of trained workers, and as a result vocational education will have even a larger part in the post-war program. Technological unemployment was pointed out as an important phase of the problem. The leaders of the panel explained that labor-saving devices increase unemployment only temporarily, since over a long period of time more laborers are demanded.

Many factors characterize the period immediately following the war. Some of the negative factors are war workers being laid off, service men returning to civil life, shifts in population, reconversion of industries, and competition for jobs. Some of the positive factors include a general feeling of awareness which is shown in post-war planning, general acceptance that price control should not be banished immediately, unemployment compensation, nation-wide system of public employment offices, tremendous demand of consumer goods after the war, the probability that demobilization will be gradual, the G.I. bill and its implications, the probable withdrawal of many workers after the war, increases in school and college enrollments, and the gradual ending of the war. There is reason to believe that we can achieve success.

Immediately following the Wednesday afternoon session, the students from the various states entertained the visitors. Watermelon cuttings, tray suppers, coca-cola parties, and teas seemed to be thoroughly enjoyed. In the evening of the first day of the conference, music and sound films were enjoyed. The A. and I. State College Concert Singers directed by Marie Brooks Strange entertained for forty-five minutes. This was followed by several films pertaining to the theme of the conference.

SCHOOLS AFTER THE WAR

The second general session opened on Thursday morning. Following addresses by Dr. E. William Doty of the University of Texas and Dr. W. A. Sutton of Georgia Education Association, Dr. L. G. Derthick, Superintendent of Schools, Chattanooga, Tennessee, conducted a general discussion on the topic of the day, "Schools After the War."

In the course of his splendid address, Dr. Doty stated that the post-war era may have some of the following features:

- (1) Internationally, the United States will emerge from this war as one of the two or three most powerful nations in the world;
- (2) Our power will be in our proven productive capacity, in our capital wealth, and in our natural resources; and
- (3) Our economic power will carry with it concomitant obligations in human and international relations.

The Texas educator explained that the proper education of our rural school population is much broader than the matter of school attendance. We must adapt our program to rural conditions, especially keeping in mind the small rural schools and their needs. We must have creative, stimulating teachers who will not have to rely on rote teaching methods. We must provide conditions which will prepare and attract the kind of teaching personnel needed to achieve these aims successfully. Finally, Dr. Doty said that we can help our rural areas to be more economically and psychologically self-sufficient if we develop a program of folk education and culture for these areas in the post-war period. Through such a program the people themselves will work out the kind of life and culture which is the logical development of their particular history and indigenous conditions.

The speaker made the point that the school is an agent of society. It must not permit an untrained citizenry which will be inferior. It is the duty of contemporary educators to train both participants and leaders. The element of emotional control must not be overlooked. Within this realm, education, religion, and industry have joint responsibility. The first speaker of the morning closed his remarks by saying: "Only through a widely disseminated sense of social responsibility, through a conviction that the fundamental values of life are human values, and that of these the most important is reverence for life itself can we be sure that the future of our society is secure."

The powerful appeal of the second speaker, Dr. Sutton, came directly out of his heart. The speaker declared that what America needs is a home life. He recommended that it be put into the curriculum. He reemphasized the point that family life is the basis of any nation. "Our job is not a *post* job, but is a *now* job," said the speaker in continuing the point that American home life must be saved now. He said that as home life goes down, disintegration of a nation begins. The recommendation that integrity must be maintained was strongly put in the words, "Integrity is the basis of life." The well-known Georgia educator maintained that the present fight is for freedoms we now enjoy, and not altogether for those we might enjoy. It is our job to make America the type of land the service boys have discovered it to be. They must not come home and find that things were not what they seemed.

The dangers of racial prejudices were pointed out by the speaker. In his opinion there must be no racial barriers. Brotherly love must prevail. Prejudices of all kinds, including religious persecutions, must be minimized. A nation can not progress when it is held back by misunderstandings and jealousies. Each individual must be allowed to develop to his fullest capacity. In conclusion, Dr. Sutton made the point that the troubles of one generation must not be the ruin of the next. He was definitely optimistic in his confirmed opinion that there are great possibilities ahead for American

youth. With the right kind of home life and this reemphasized in the schools, boys and girls of the future America can not fail to continue in wholesome progress.

DISCUSSION GROUPS ON THURSDAY

The fifth discussion group, with J. J. Ray of the General Shoe Corporation acting as chairman, entered into challenging thinking on the topic, "Rural Education after the War." Dr. Maurice Seay of the University of Kentucky served as discussion leader for this group and began his remarks with the statement that rural education after the war will base its program upon the discovery and development of resources, physical and human. The rural school will serve the community and the possibilities are almost limitless. In the opinion of Dr. Seay, there will be more need for consolidation after the war than ever before. This will mean wholesome attitudes of community pride and a minimum of local isolationism. Members of the panel pointed out that any consideration of consolidation should not overlook the sociological factors involved in community centers.

The role of the school in the rehabilitation of returning service men came in for much enthusiastic discussion. Prominent in this discussion was Dr. Ralph M. Lyon, Educational Officer, Nichols General Hospital, Louisville, Kentucky. He remarked that vocational training, especially handicrafts, would be most popular with the returned soldiers. It was the final conclusion of the group that reorganization of school units and in-service training of teachers were vital problems facing the rural schools and that each should receive careful study with a view to maturing plans for action in these two areas.

"Curricular Changes after the War" was the central theme of group number six presided over by Dr. Norman Frost. Dr. W. T. Edwards, Florida State Department of Education, was introduced as discussion leader. According to Dr. Edwards, sound educational progress must be planned in terms of the past, present, and future. Planning must meet such needs as the conservation of natural and human resources, the harnessing of technological progress to social ends, and the promotion of world-wide understanding and cooperation. However, we must guard the tendency to upset old patterns without definite recommendations for replacing them. The discussion leader mentioned the inconsistency of news commentators. They tell us not to abandon cultural education and yet they tell us to make all education practical. They criticize the teaching of fundamentals and yet insist on our teaching the basic understandings. They criticize us for not adopting up-to-the-minute procedures and yet they tell us not to spend time on frills such as music, physical education, and visual education. They want us to inculcate moral values, but they are opposed to courses labeled "Social Problems."

There was general agreement among panel members that the changes in education after the war will not be rapid or startling. The curriculum of the future will be concerned with natural resources, human resources, and the applications of technological development to social ends. These needs for curricular change have been here a long time but have been accentuated by the war. Change will come about by a shifting of emphasis. This, however, is not new as educational endeavor has constantly experienced a shifting of emphasis. Pre-school and kindergarten training have been brought to the front in industrial centers. That there is a definite need for this type of training is shown by the resulting reduction in first grade failures. It is believed that the emphasis upon vocational education will depend upon the demands of industry. The panel members felt that vocational education should not be separate and apart from general education. That children of average intelligence can profit from both cultural and vocational training and that vocational subjects can be made cultural was answered in the affirmative.

There will be a greater change in things than in people. One member of the panel stated, "We will have to wake up to the significance of science or science will blast us." Since human beings will continue at the controls, we are going to have to prepare our people in exercising more judgment and skill. Scholarship and the creative productivity of the individual must be restored. To do this the schools will have to find a way to teach a new spirit of workmanship and more self-reliance. We should be able to find a balance between the responsibility of the individual and the responsibility of state.

The opinion that Christian ethics are important in modern education was expressed. One panel member believes that we have come to grips with the fate of the common man, and that the fate of democracy is the fate of the common man. If we believe with Horace Mann that democracy is the political expression of Christianity, there is no surer way of wrecking democracy than by divorcing education from Christian ethics.

Group number seven discussed, "Library Services after the War." Dr. Edward A. Wight who presided over the meeting introduced the topic and then presented the discussion leaders, Dr. A. F. Kuhlman, Director of Joint University Libraries, and Miss Sue Hefley, State Supervisor of Libraries in Louisiana. The two library authorities were in agreement that the effective plan of tomorrow's library service is the plan that is the logical development from the practices and experiences of today. School library service is a part of the whole educational pattern. Equalization of educational opportunities, education for the very young, individualization, flexibility of curriculum, vocational guidance, wise consumption, identification of the school with the community, democratic procedure, and administrative efficiency are all factors which cannot be separated from library service. There was

general agreement in the discussion that there should be greater cooperation between public and school libraries. In some places the public libraries are operating stations within the schools. Also, counties that unite their efforts will receive larger amounts from state funds than those that remain isolated. The Tennessee libraries are getting out pamphlets that will aid returned soldiers in continuing their education or getting work in industries. One member of the panel who was a world war veteran suggested that the soldiers do not want special plans made for them but wish to take their places as members of society.

In our colleges the administration, faculty, and library staff have a common purpose in working out a curriculum that will meet the needs that are being disclosed by the war. Further training of librarians was thought to be necessary to enable them to understand the problems of the instructors in vitalizing the curriculum, and to take care of constant replanning that is necessary to meet changing conditions.

There was general agreement that faculty members should aid in selecting materials and should know what materials are available. The means of determining their use depends to a large extent on the individual instructor. Reserve desk checking was thought to be of questionable value as students are able to build up a large circulation of books without having done much work.

Dr. Dennis H. Cooke was chairman of group eight and introduced the topic, "Financing Education after the War." Dr. Edgar L. Morphet of the Florida State Department of Education served the group as discussion leader. He showed that much of the Southern States' recommendations to their state representative bodies were not based on a scientific analysis of their needs. But, rather, that they were a product of the synthesis of the demands of all groups concerned with "living off" the appropriations.

Dr. Morphet said that school people should approach the problem of budget recommendations by answering the questions: What kind of public schools do we want? What kind of services do we want our schools to render? What will be the cost of this program? How shall we finance this program?

It developed later in the discussion that followed, and Dr. Morphet agreed, that there should be a concomitant procedure to make the lay people a part of the study. It was agreed that no program such as this could be carried out unless the communities were "sold" and gave their support. Appropriations should cover the entire needs of education and appeals for special appropriations should be abandoned. Many of the financing requests are made on an emotional basis that are not in the end conducive to a good public state of mind.

Dr. C. E. Myers of the Virginia Department of Education made the point that there is one thing worse than an empty classroom and that is a full classroom with a poor teacher. We have a right to demand salaries to support good teachers, and to demand any portion of the national income for public education. One hundred dollars per year per pupil is a reasonable estimate for what the average school superintendent would call adequate. It was agreed that funds should come from the state's general fund to avoid schools being "out on a limb" in times of depression. The state should set up systems for purchasing supplies and equipment. We need to consolidate local units of government so that the savings may be applied to supporting schools. We need federal aid with disbursement being made through the state offices. The discussion developed the theme of community planning based on scientific surveys of needs and costs with the educational forces and institutions of the state giving support to the agreed program. Perhaps, some form should be devised for making a community survey whereby the results would show how a particular community compared with other communities and what school services it needs.

The conference closed with a Music Festival on Thursday evening. Dr. Irving Wolfe, C. B. Hunt, Jr. and Ronald J. Neil directed the splendid program.

Commission on Curricular Problems and Research

BY DOAK S. CAMPBELL

President, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee, Fla.

The work of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research has been limited considerably since the outbreak of the war. However, the Southern Study, the major enterprise undertaken by the Commission, has gone forward in the face of many difficulties. The dislocation of members of the faculties of the selected schools; the necessary decrease in the amount of staff service that could be made available; the limitations under which publications of reports have been accomplished—these and many other factors have tended to modify the development of the Study during its concluding period.

Adequate summaries of the purposes and of the nature and scope of the work of the Commission have been prepared by Dean Brooks and Dr. Yeuell.¹ Consequently, we present a brief statement regarding the termination of the Study and some suggestions as to the activities of the Commission in the immediate future.

According to the original plan for the Study, the last two years covered by the General Education Board Grant ending June 30, 1945, were to be used primarily for the extension of the results of the Study. This objective was to be accomplished mainly, (1) by publication of reports of various aspects of the Study, and (2) by encouraging more extensive relations with the schools on the part of state departments of education, higher institutions, and state representatives of the Commission on Secondary Schools. The plans for the entire period of the Study called for the gradual reduction of the number of staff members from year to year so that during the final year there would be no central staff as such.

The untimely death of Dr. K. J. Hoke in February, 1944, deeply affected the work of the Commission. Since its beginning Dr. Hoke had been intimately associated with every phase of the work of the Commission. He was the first chairman and served in that capacity, with the exception of the brief period during which he was ineligible to membership, to the day of his death. As chairman of the Executive Committee, Dr. Hoke worked with untiring devotion to accomplish the purposes of the Commission.

The process of reorganization made necessary by the death of Dr. Hoke has necessarily caused considerable delay. In the meantime, members of the professional staff have been engaged in their regular duties in the institutions which they serve. Consequently, they have had little opportunity

¹ SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, May, 1944.

to contribute to the Study. The participating schools have moved ahead with their own programs, but there has been little coordination of their activities with those of other schools.

In April, after the Executive Committee had been reorganized, plans were immediately set in motion to conclude the formal aspects of the Study. Special attention was given to the program of the publication. Within the framework of the general program for publication that had been previously adopted by the Commission Dr. Jenkins and his staff were requested to submit specific plans. After considerable correspondence, plans for producing a final over-all report were consummated at a joint meeting of the Executive Committee and staff members in Nashville, Tennessee on June 21, 1944.

In brief, the details as worked out by Dr. Jenkins and his associates and approved unanimously by the Executive Committee are as follows:

1. The staff of the Southern Study will assume the responsibility for the preparation of a summary report on the Southern Study covering its origin, intent, procedures, findings, and implications for education. This report is to be a finished manuscript ready for publication and of such length as to approximate 250 to 300 printed pages.

2. This manuscript will be completed and submitted to the Chairman of the Executive Committee of the Commission on or before March 1, 1945.

3. The task of preparing this report will be the responsibility of Dr. Jenkins and such other members of the Staff of the Southern Study as agree to participate.

4. The maximum cost of completing this report will not exceed \$6,900, this amount to be allocated according to the following tentative budget:

A. Staff service (Subject to reallocation)	\$5,200.00
B. Secretarial help	600.00
C. Supplies	100.00
D. Contingent fund (travel, joint meetings, and additional staff service)	1,000.00
Total	\$6,900.00

5. It is assumed that remuneration of staff members will be worked out along the same general lines as formerly, namely, that the regular salary of the individual provide the base and the specific allocation of time be paid for at that rate. Payment is to be made to the institution or agency wherever possible. Other payments will be made as indicated in the budget and as approved by Dr. Jenkins.

6. It is understood that the report will be published by the Commission as the work of the Staff of the Southern Study with full credit for authorship, but with the Commission or its committees reserving the right to make minor editorial changes and through the medium of an introduction, preface, or other separate statement, to express the views of the Commission, the Southern Association, or both, with respect to the Southern Study and the summary report. The publication shall be copyrighted in the name of the Commission (or Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools) and all copyright privileges shall be held by said Commission (or Association).

7. Any change in the report proper, other than routine editing, will be made only after conference with a member or the members of the staff responsible for its preparation.

8. The staff will be permitted to advise with the Publications Committee or the Executive Committee of the Commission in the development of publications plans.

9. Dr. Jenkins, with other staff members, will immediately plan the distribution of time, and each is to notify the Chairman of the Commission the period of time to be devoted to the Study and the name of the individual to whom the Chairman should write relative to securing the necessary leave-of-absence and arranging salary payments.

With final plans for publication agreed upon, one other phase of the work of the Study remains. Provision has been made whereby the selected schools may secure from appropriate sources special consultant services. A limited amount of funds has been made available for this purpose and will be released after proper application has been made to the Executive Committee of the Commission.

With plans for the conclusion of the formal aspects of the Study agreed upon and under way, the Executive Committee has turned its attention to the development of a future program for the Commission. In accord with the outline of duties of the Commission as set forth in the Constitution of the Association, specific suggestions and proposals are solicited from members of the Commission, officers of the Association and the other Commissions, and any other persons who may be interested. A tentative program will be prepared for presentation to the Commission at a meeting to be held in connection with the next meeting of the Association. Such a program as may be adopted by the Commission will then be presented to the Association for approval.

Fourth Report of the Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education

Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools
1943-1944

The Committee has to report the loss by death on February 6, 1944, of Dean K. J. Hoke, the Chairman of the Committee since its organization in 1941. The vacancy in the membership of the Committee caused by Dean Hoke's death has been filled by appointment of Professor Gladstone H. Yeuell of the University of Alabama from the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research. Professor Edgar W. Knight was elected to succeed Dean Hoke as Chairman of the Committee at a meeting held in Atlanta, Georgia, on April 12, 1944.

The Committee on Work Conferences undertook the following program of work for 1943-1944: *

1. "Continue to encourage and to collect information concerning the studies already inaugurated in the cooperating institutions, to collect and disseminate through a monthly bulletin information regarding studies in progress and pertinent bibliographical information, and to publish another general report during 1943-1944 on the results of the work."
2. "Gather material on special studies in progress in the fields of liberal and general education, such as the forthcoming report of the President's Committee on Post-war Education, for distribution to institutions."
3. "Encourage institutions to take the initiative in carrying on certain intensive studies in the various areas of liberal education, such as the Vanderbilt Study in the Humanities."
4. "Survey through institutional coordinators programs already in progress or contemplated which aim to carry college instruction beyond the campus into the community, to encourage such efforts, and to report on the results of this survey."

The Committee voted on April 12 to hold a Work Conference in 1945, to continue the office of its Executive Secretary until the next Work Conference, and to direct its Executive Committee, consisting of Chairman Edgar W. Knight, Director of Work Conferences O. C. Carmichael, and

* See SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, v. vii, p. 384 (November, 1943.)

Executive Secretary Roscoe E. Parker, to arrange necessary details, including a budget, for the continuation of that office.

For the promotion of activities undertaken during the current year the Committee approved a budget of \$2,400.00 for the period beginning September 1, 1943, and ending June 30, 1944. Of this amount \$1,908.76 was used, leaving an unexpended balance in the budget of \$491.23.

I

In carrying forward the first project of the Committee, the Executive Secretary has carried on general correspondence with cooperating institutions and organizations, has distributed nearly 1,000 copies of the *Third General Report on Work Conferences on Higher Education*, including sales for which \$36.06 was collected and deposited with the Treasurer of the Association to the credit of the Committee on Work Conferences.

The Committee has been represented by its Executive Secretary during the year at the following meetings: Faculty Work Conference at Mississippi State College for Women in October, 1943; the Vanderbilt Conference on Education and Industry in March, 1944; and the Southern States Work Conference on School Administrative Problems at Daytona Beach, Florida, in June, 1944.

The Committee has prepared and distributed monthly from the office of the Executive Secretary ten issues of the fifth series of the *Work Conference Bulletin* running from September, 1943, through June, 1944. Approximately 530 copies of the bulletin have been distributed each month. These bulletins have averaged five pages in length, making a total of fifty pages for the series of ten bulletins. In addition to other materials, forty-two bibliographical items have been referred to in the bulletin; and many of these have been summarized or commented upon.

In spite of the difficulties of initiating or even continuing studies during the year, which the Committee foresaw in making its plans, it is obvious that many institutions have agreed with the statement of the Committee "that the need was never greater." Thirty-nine institutions of higher education have reported ninety-two working committees during the year as compared with 105 institutions reporting 110 working committees during 1942-1943. It is worthy of note that while the number of institutions reporting active committees has declined by about sixty per cent, the decline in the number of working committees is relatively small.

Attention is called to the fact that sixty-six of the cooperating institutions reporting working committees last year have not reported such committees this year. A few of these institutions have reported suspension of active committee work because of military educational programs or loss of faculty personnel. Others have not reported at all and are presumably too busy

to report or are in a state of suspended activity. On the other hand, sixteen institutions which did not report last year have reported working committees this year. This makes an encouraging total of 121 cooperating institutions for the two-year period, 1942-1944.

A summary of the problems on which institutional committees are working is both interesting and significant in its implications for education in the South. Such a summary shows that twenty-one committees are working on curricular problems, eleven on post-war problems, eleven on counseling and guidance of students, eleven on the improvement of instruction, eight on the liberal arts (humanities, natural sciences, and social sciences), six on teacher education, six on evaluation and grading, three on institutional organization, and the other thirteen on as many problems of local interest. The new concern of committees, as was to be expected, is the problem of post-war education. It should not be assumed, of course, that the committees reported accurately reflect this new concern, for it is either explicit or implicit in the work of a number of other committees. Nor should it be forgotten that the President of the Association has appointed a Regional Post-war Educational Committee representing each of the eleven states comprising the Association "to study post-war problems in higher education." But the survey also shows that our colleges and universities are conscious of their perennial as well as their occasional problems and that they are giving constant and serious attention to them.

The number of reports received from working committees, exclusive of those listed below showing programs intended to relate campus instruction to community life, also compares favorably with the number received last year. Fourteen institutions have sent in twenty-five committee reports to date this year. At the same time last year twenty-eight institutions had sent in twenty-eight reports. The relative increase in the number of committees prepared to submit at least tentative reports is again worthy of note. Attention should be called, moreover, to the fact that a considerable number of cooperating institutions plan to submit completed reports by December 1, 1944.

Since it is planned to digest, organize, and report the substance of all reports received from the beginning of the cooperative work in higher education, no attempt will be made in this report to synthesize the reports received this year. It is interesting to note, however, that nine institutions which sent no reports last year have sent summary or committee reports this year. On the other hand, sixteen institutions which sent in reports last year apparently have nothing new to report. The total number of cooperating institutions from which committee reports have been received during the last two years, therefore, is now thirty-five.

The reports received this year deal with faculty activities (10), curricula (3), grading (2), post-war problems (2), teacher education (2), absenteeism,

guidance, humanities, improvement of instruction, institutional organization, and scholarship. One of these reports is a most interesting critique by an entire faculty of the *General Report on the Second Work Conference on Higher Education*.

II

A consistent effort has been made to gather material on special studies in progress in the fields of liberal and general education, such as the . . . "report of the President's Committee on Post-War Education, for distribution to institutions." The following special studies have been published in the Bulletins indicated:

"Preliminary Report of the Armed Forces Committee on Post-War Educational Opportunities for Service Personnel," The Osborn Committee (Bulletin No. III, November, 1943).

"Program of Education in Fishery Biology and Conservation," College of William and Mary (Bulletin No. VI, February, 1944).

"Some of the Issues Involved in Meeting Post-War Adjustments in Higher Education," by Fred J. Kelly, U.S. Office of Education (Bulletin No. II, October, 1943).

"The General Education of Teachers and of All Others," by W. E. Peik (Bulletin No. VII, March, 1944).

"The North Texas Regional Libraries," by A. F. Kuhlman (Bulletin No. VIII, April, 1944).

In addition to these studies, a number of editorials, magazine articles, and similar materials have been brought to the attention of readers of the Bulletin from month to month. Requests for additional copies of the Bulletin indicate special interest in Dean Peik's study and in the survey of programs for relating campus instruction to community life which will be referred to below.

As has been stated already, it is hoped that committee reports from cooperating institutions can be digested and presented during the coming year in studies similar to those indicated above.

III

Significant progress has been made in carrying forward the plan of the Committee to "encourage institutions to take the initiative in carrying on certain intensive studies in the various areas of liberal education." Chairman Edgar W. Knight and Director of Work Conferences O. C. Carmichael have been instrumental in initiating intensive studies in the social sciences and in the natural sciences. The special studies now in progress are:

"The Humanities," at Vanderbilt University under the direction of Professor Walter Clyde Curry.

"The Natural Sciences," at the University of Georgia under the direction of Dean George H. Boyd.

"The Social Sciences" at the University of North Carolina under the direction of Dr. Gordon W. Blackwell.

As has already been announced through the Bulletin, conferences were scheduled at Vanderbilt University on the humanities during the summer of 1944 and at the University of North Carolina on the social sciences in 1945. It is hoped that either final or preliminary reports on these undertakings will be available to the next General Work Conference. Other special studies are needed, and plans are being formulated for their development. It may be that announcement of these plans can be made in the early fall.

IV

In accordance with the instruction of the Committee, a survey was made through institutional coordinators of "programs already in progress or contemplated which aimed to carry college instruction beyond the campus into the community."

Reports were received from thirty-three institutions between November 1, 1943, and June 1, 1944. Five of these reported no such programs in progress or contemplated. Twenty-eight reported more or less active programs involving thirteen areas of learning. (See Bulletin V, January, 1944; Bulletin VI, February, 1944; Bulletin IX, May, 1944; Bulletin X, June, 1944.) Some of the programs reported consisted merely of student and faculty participation in certain local community affairs, while others indicated well-planned programs of education involving the participation of faculty, students, and citizens in the development of projects of state-wide significance. Regardless of the extent of these programs, they all show a much greater degree of democracy in education and of institutional concern with the public welfare than is generally believed to exist. That these programs are of general interest to cooperating institutions is evidenced by the number of requests received for additional copies of the bulletins in which the results of this survey were recorded. These programs are being developed in the following areas: business administration and economics; education (adult, cooperative, and rural leadership); fine arts and music; home economics; health and nutrition; languages; library; political science; psychology; radio, lectures, and concerts; science (chemistry, biology, bacteriology, botany, geology, anthropology, archaeology, agriculture, engineering, mathematics); social sciences; and service programs (nursing, first aid, map reading, etc.)

Activities reported seem to indicate not only a desire to extend campus instruction into the community but also a desire on the part of educational,

professional, and lay citizens to work cooperatively toward the solution of ever enlarging community problems and to bring to bear on these problems all the resources of the community. Such undertakings hold great promise for the future of education in a democracy.

V

The Committee has given serious consideration to plans for the future. It has especially considered plans for the final work conference under the present grant and has definitely decided to undertake such a work conference in 1945. In reaching this decision, the Committee was influenced by several factors. One was the present difficulty of travel. Another was the fact that a number of faculty committees will be unable to report on their studies before the end of the year. A third and important factor was the possibility of utilizing the results of the intensive studies in special areas of learning now in progress at the University of Georgia, the University of North Carolina, and Vanderbilt University.

The Committee has undertaken to continue the office of its Executive Secretary until the next work conference and has authorized the undersigned Executive Committee to arrange necessary details for the continuation of that office.

Several suggestions have been received for work in the immediate future. The Committee is grateful for these suggestions and takes this opportunity of recommending them to the consideration of cooperating institutions. Since they are the common problems of all institutions, it is incumbent upon all to give them such consideration as may seem necessary.

The first major problem suggested is that of providing for the needs of returning military service personnel. It is indicated that such provision concerns not only adaptations for meeting educational needs of these students but also some sort of uniform plan for granting credit to and proper placement in curricula of returning service personnel.

The second problem suggested for consideration is the organization and function of the post-war college. Suggested for consideration as a part of this problem are such items as high school curricula that will provide sufficient background for a liberal arts education in such subjects as mathematics and English, an inter-institutional study of classes and grading, problems of general education at the junior college level, community relationships, and problems involved in the transfer of students from junior and non-accredited colleges to senior and accredited colleges.

The third problem suggested is that involved in providing a reasonable plan for the improvement and evaluation of teaching. This problem, as suggested, includes not only institutional education of prospective teachers

but also such problems as the following: the senior comprehensive examination as a stimulus to both learning and teaching, the reorganization and vitalization of traditional courses, the use of syllabi and visual aids in instruction, and the improvement of testing programs and techniques now in use.

Certainly these problems need to receive the attention of the faculties of all institutions of higher education, and the Committee stands ready to give whatever assistance and encouragement it can to the development of these and other necessary studies. That such studies are difficult under present circumstances is obvious. It is equally obvious that serious and important studies are always difficult under any circumstances. It may be worthwhile, therefore, to repeat the following statement issued by the Committee in its report last year and to suggest that each institution give it serious consideration: *

"The Committee recognized that it will not be easy in these difficult times for faculties to continue to concentrate on studies of normal peacetime problems. It thought, however, that the need was never greater and that, unless such studies prepare for the new demands that will be made on higher education after the war, there will be danger not only that the colleges and universities will miss a great opportunity but that their effectiveness will be impaired for a long time to come. The Committee, therefore, urges the faculties of all Southern institutions to carry on with redoubled energy the studies begun in the Conferences of 1941 and 1942, expanding their efforts to cover fields not hitherto developed.

"The Work Conference plan has provided for a study of its program of higher education by an entire region. This unique opportunity carries with it heavy responsibility. If permanent and lasting values do not result from all the studies undertaken, a great opportunity presented to higher education in the South will have been missed. Full advantage of this opportunity can be secured only if institutions, through their faculties and administrative officers, put forth every effort possible in carrying forward this Work Conference program."

Finally, the Committee wishes to emphasize the importance of preparing for the final work conference under the present grant. This Conference is planned for next year. It is obvious that those institutions which have been most actively engaged in the study of problems of higher education will have most to contribute to such a conference. The Committee wishes to suggest, therefore, that each member institution of the Association seriously consider whether it is not obligated to make some contribution to such a conference and through the conference to the future of education in the

* See SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, v. vii, p. 385 (November, 1943).

South. The Committee has hoped that each institution will assume such an obligation and has planned accordingly. With the statement of this plan from last year's report * this report may well conclude:

"Following the final Work Conference under the present subsidy, which will probably be held in [1944 or] 1945, a special committee should be appointed to bring together and put in permanent form the results of all studies made, both in the Work Conferences and in the institutions. The Committee believes that as a result of these studies made over a period of three or four years there should emerge definite suggestions for the improvement of the entire program of higher education in the South and that there should also emerge a better understanding of the contribution of the institutions of higher learning to modern times and conditions of living."

The Committee wishes to express its deep appreciation of the cooperation it has received during this difficult year in the continuation of cooperative studies in higher education in the South. It invites the suggestions and renewed cooperation of all member institutions of the Association.

Respectfully submitted,
Executive Committee,

EDGAR W. KNIGHT, *Chairman,*
OLIVER C. CARMICHAEL, *Director,*
ROSCOE E. PARKER, *Executive Secretary.*

* See SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, v. vii, p. 385 (November, 1943).

Editorial Notes

Some Effects of the War on Southern Schools

The articles in this issue of the *QUARTERLY* by Acting Director W. T. Edwards of the Division of Instruction, Florida State Department of Education, by Supervisor Mark Godman of the Kentucky State Department, by Secretary W. E. Pafford of the Georgia High School Accrediting Commission, and by Director Joseph R. Griggs of the Texas State Department are part of a series of articles dealing with war-time conditions facing the schools and how they have been met. Other articles in the series will appear in subsequent numbers, including in November reports from the following:

Director J. Henry Highsmith, Department of Public Instruction, Raleigh, North Carolina;

E. R. Crow, Department of Education, Columbia South Carolina;

R. R. Vance, Supervisor Division of High Schools, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee.

Fred M. Alexander, Supervisor of Secondary Education, State Board of Education, Richmond, Virginia

We hope within the next two issues to have Alabama, Louisiana, and Mississippi represented also. The complete series ought to give a good picture of current educational practices and problems in the South.

Curriculum Conference on Post-War Education

George Peabody College for Teachers

July 26-27, 1944

The *QUARTERLY* is glad to present this month the papers and discussions presented before the Curriculum Conference on Post-War Education held at the George Peabody College for Teachers, July 26-27. It will be observed that most of the papers were carefully prepared and that the Conference not only realized the challenge of new conditions and new problems, but also frequently expressed the opinion that we shall have better results, better ways of working together, and more hopeful outlook with which to meet the post-war situation.

The Historical Section

We had planned to continue in this number of the *QUARTERLY* the "Historical Section" that has somewhat been crowded out of the *QUARTERLY* for the last few numbers. We have interesting articles for publication in early issues of the *QUARTERLY* as follows:

A Short History of Ocala High School by Jocie Parrish, Head of Mathematics Department, and Ava Lee Edwards, member of High School English Faculty;

The Bonham High School by T. E. Anderson, Principal;

A Brief Historical Sketch of the Harrisonburg High School by B. L. Stanley, Principal;

Girls' Preparatory School by Miss Tommie Payne Duffy, Co-principal;
Historical Sketch of Holmes High School by Russell E. Helmick, Principal;
Waco High School by Mrs. M. C. Butler, Principal;
The Blackshear High School by J. B. Jenkins, Superintendent;
Sam Houston Senior High School by Mr. W. S. Brandenberger, Principal;
The Huntsville High School by W. G. Hamm, Superintendent;
A Synopsis of the History of Talladega High School by W. P. McLure, Principal;
Historical Sketch of the Columbus High School by Paul M. Munroe, Superintendent;
A Sketch of Lufkin High School by W. C. Royle, Principal;
History of Gainesville High School by F. W. Buchholz, Supervising Principal;
Historical Sketch of Gordon Military College by Miss Marion Bush, Professor of English and Dean of Women;
Historical Sketch of Randolph-Macon College by E. L. Fox, Professor of History;
The University of the South by Alexander Guerry, Vice-Chancellor;
Vanderbilt University by Edwin Mims, Professor of English;
The University of Virginia by Thomas P. Abernethy, Professor of History.

This historical section brings out many interesting facts as to the dates of origin of schools and dates at which important educational movements reached certain parts of the South. There are many incidental side-lights on earlier ways and customs. For example, certain schools referred to all of the earlier principals by the title "Professor." This seems to have been a general custom in the South and probably existed in other sections of the country. In referring to all male teachers in academies, the usage literally followed a definition given in *Webster's Dictionary*, "one who professes, or publicly teaches, any science or branch of learning." As public high schools began to take the place of academies, the title was carried over into the high schools; and since the principal in the public high school was frequently the only male teacher on the faculty, the term fastened itself on him. This editor, when a young principal of a nine-teacher school and just out of college, was punctiliously called "the professor," both by the better educated citizens of the community who had had academy training and by less fortunate patrons who had come into the school district from old communities with academy traditions. We now hear the term applied very rarely in the case of public school principals although we hear it now and then used in referring to private secondary school men of long service. This is a simple change of word-usage within the fraction of a life-time; but changes in educational organization, methods, and philosophies are much more apparent as we read the sketches of schools that have been prepared for the November QUARTERLY.

Conferences and Associations of Colleges

Probably every Southern state has an "Association of Colleges" or a "College Conference" organized sometime within the last quarter of a century, or certainly after 1900. These conferences have been valuable auxiliary agencies of the Southern Association in developing cooperation and standards both among the colleges and between the colleges and secondary schools. Not only have they made standards, usually somewhat lower than those of the Association in order to bring in the weaker colleges of the state, but they have also prevented—by their activity—sharp lines of jealous cleavage between member institutions and non-members. They have contributed valiantly toward smoothing out the bitterness that existed in 1900 between privately supported institutions and those publicly supported. In some instances, on account of the interest of the state departments in the colleges because of their teacher-training activities, these conferences or associations have included state departments in their membership. They did this before the Southern Association recognized state departments in its constitution (1935).

These conferences have been truly Southern in their carelessness as to preserving their history. The QUARTERLY has been trying casually for seven years to induce active members of the various state conferences to contribute sketches of these important organizations. The men asked have always seemed to be too busy to get around to writing the articles requested. We now, however, have articles promised by the following for the college conferences of their respective states:

- Dr. T. H. Napier, Alabama College, Montevallo, Alabama;
- Dr. William Melcher, Rollins College, Winter Park, Florida;
- Dr. W. D. Hooper, The University of Georgia, Athens, Georgia;
- Dr. James H. Hewlett, Centre College, Danville, Kentucky;
- Dr. H. L. Griffin, Southwest Louisiana Institute, Lafayette, Louisiana;
- President James B. Young, Jones County Junior College, Mississippi;
- Dr. Sam'l B. Turrentine, President Emeritus Greensboro College, Greensboro, North Carolina;
- Dr. C. Hodge Mathes, East Tennessee State College, Johnson City, Tennessee.
- Dr. Thomas E. Ferguson, Stephen F. Austin State Teachers College, Nacogdoches, Texas.

If any of our readers happens to know someone who ought to undertake the sketch for the states not listed, we shall appreciate having the names. We shall also appreciate the collaboration of our members with the person who is undertaking to write the sketch of the conference in each of the states listed. This series of articles will begin appearing in the November issue.

"In Memoriam"

The November issue will carry the usual sketches of the faculty members in Association institutions who have died since January 1. These materials should be furnished in accordance with the form appearing in the February issue of 1944.

Notice to Association Libraries

We have had several requests lately from libraries for back numbers of the *QUARTERLY*, and particularly for back numbers of the annual volume of "Proceedings." Back volumes of proceedings prior to 1920 are available while they last in paper binding at fifty cents per copy, as follows: 1904, seven copies; 1905, ten copies; 1906, eight copies; 1907, twelve copies; 1908, seventeen copies; 1909, fourteen copies; 1910, 142 copies; 1911, 127 copies; 1912, 146 copies; 1913, 103 copies; 1914, 77 copies.

Cloth-bound copies of proceedings of the annual meetings since 1920 are available at \$1.25 per copy as follows: 1922, seven copies; 1924, one copy; 1925, 101 copies; 1926, seven copies; 1927, 90 copies; 1928, 108 copies; 1929, 140 copies; 1930, 44 copies; 1931, 51 copies; 1932, 97 copies; 1933, 283 copies; 1934, 98 copies; 1935, 88 copies; 1936, 30 copies.

Unbound copies of the *QUARTERLY* are available to members beginning with February, 1937, about two hundred copies for each year, at \$2.00 per volume. Libraries connected with member institutions would do well to order such copies as they need at once. Libraries in other sections of the country will be circularized, and it will probably be too late to complete Southern files after this quarter. Orders already on hand will be filled according to date of receipt.

ANNUAL MEETING OF THE ASSOCIATION

The Executive Committee of the Association will meet in September to fix a date for the 1944 annual meeting. Announcement will be made by letter to all members. There is much important planning that should be undertaken at once.

